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LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

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"A FIRST LATIN BOOK," "A SECOND LATIN BOOK," "A FIRST GREEK BOOK," ETC.

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PREFACE.

The work now offered to the public had its origin in a desire to promote the cause of Classical study. It has long been the opinion of the author, in common with numerous classical teachers, that the subject of Latin Grammar, often regarded as dry and difficult, may be presented to the learner in a form at once simple, attractive, and philosophical. It is the aim of this manual to aid the instructor in the attainment of this most desirable end.

That the present is a favorable time for the production of a Latin Grammar scarcely admits of a doubt. Never before were there such facilities for the work. The last quarter of a century has formed an epoch in the study of language and in the methods of instruction. During this period some of the most gifted minds of Germany have been gathering the choicest treasures in the field of philology, while others have been equally successful in devising improved methods of instruction. In our own country too, the more enterprising teachers have caught the spirit of improvement, and are calling loudly for a better method than has hitherto prevailed in classical study.

The present work has been prepared in view of these facts. To explain its general plan, the author begs leave to specify the following points.

1. This volume is designed to present a systematic arrangement of the great facts and laws of the Latin language; to exhibit not only grammatical forms and constructions, but also those *vital principles* which underlie, control, and explain them.

2. Designed at once as a text-book for the class-room, and a book of reference in study, it aims to introduce the beginner easily and pleasantly to the first principles of the language, and yet to make adequate provision for the wants of the more advanced student. Accordingly it presents in large type a general survey of the whole subject in a brief and concise statement of facts and

laws, while parallel with this, in smaller type, it furnishes a fuller discussion of irregularities and exceptions for later study and for reference.

- 3. By brevity and conciseness in the choice of phraseology and compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, the author has endeavored to compress within the limits of a convenient manual an amount of carefully selected grammatical facts, which would otherwise fill a much larger volume.
- 4. He has, moreover, endeavored to present the whole subject in the light of modern scholarship. Without encumbering his pages with any unnecessary discussions, he has aimed to enrich them with the *practical results* of the recent labors in the field of philology.
- 5. In the regular paradigms, both of declension and of conjugation, the stems and endings have been distinguished by a difference of type, thus keeping constantly before the pupil the significance of the two essential elements which enter into the composition of inflected forms.
- 6. Syntax has received in every part special attention. An attempt has been made to exhibit, as clearly as possible, that beautiful system of laws which the genius of the language—that highest of all grammatical authority—has created for itself. The leading principles of construction have been put in the form of definite rules, and illustrated by carefully selected examples. To secure convenience of reference and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these rules, after being separately discussed, are presented in a body at the close of the Syntax.
- 7. The subdivisions in each discussion are developed, as far as practicable, from the leading idea which underlies the whole subject. Thus in the treatment of cases, moods, and tenses, various uses, comparatively distinct in themselves, are found to centre around some leading idea or thought, thus imparting to the subject both unity and simplicity.
- 8. Topics which require extended illustration are first presented in their completeness in general outline, before the separate points are discussed in detail. Thus a single page often foreshadows all the leading features of an extended discussion, imparting a completeness and vividness to the impression of the learner, impossible under any other treatment.
 - 9. Special care has been taken to explain and illustrate with

the requisite fulness all difficult and intricate subjects. The Subjunctive Mood—that severest trial of the teacher's patience—has been presented, it is hoped, in a form at once simple and comprehensive. The different uses have not only been carefully classified, but also distinguished by characteristic and appropriate terms, convenient for the class-room.

For the benefit of those who prefer to begin with a more elementary manual in the study of Latin, it is in contemplation to publish a smaller Grammar on precisely the same plan as the present work, and with the same mode of treatment. This will be especially adapted to the wants of those who do not contemplate a collegiate course of study.

• A Latin Reader, prepared with special reference to this work and intended as a companion to it, will be published at an early day.

In conclusion the author cheerfully acknowledges his indebtedness to other scholars, who have labored in the same field. The classification of verbs is founded in part on that of Grotefend and Krüger, a mode of treatment generally adopted in the recent German works on the subject, and well exhibited by Allen in his Analysis of Latin Verbs.

In Prosody much aid has been derived from the excellent works of Ramsay and Habenicht.

On the general subjects of Etymology and Syntax, his indebtedness is less direct, though perhaps no less real. His views of philology have been formed in a great measure under the moulding influence of the great German masters; and perhaps few Latin Grammars of any repute have appeared within the last half century, either in this country, England, or Germany, from which he has not received valuable suggestions. In the actual work of preparation, however, he has carried out his own plan, and presented his own modes of treatment, but he has aimed to avoid all untried novelties and to admit only that which is sustained by the highest authority, and confirmed by the actual experience of the class-room.

The author is happy to express his grateful acknowledgments to the numerous Instructors who have favored him with valuable 'suggestions; especially to his esteemed friend and colleague, Professor J. L. Lincoln, of this University.

PREFACE

TO THE REVISED EDITION.

The present edition is the result of a thorough and complete revision. The author has subjected every part of the work to a careful examination; he has availed himself of the suggestions of the most eminent classical instructors, and, finally, as the surest of all tests, he has used the work in connection with all the principal Latin authors usually read in school and college. The materials thus collected have been incorporated in this edition without either changing the plan or increasing the size of the work. By a studied attention to clearness and brevity, space has been secured for many valuable refinements of the language.

In this new form the work is now committed to classical teachers in the hope that in their hands it may promote the cause of classical education in our land.

Brown University, September, 1867.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

1. LATIN GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises four parts:

I. Orthography, which treats of the letters and sounds

of the language.

II. ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.

III. SYNTAX, which treats of the construction of sentences.

IV. Prosody, which treats of quantity and versification.

. PART FIRST.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ALPHABET.

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of w.

1. U supplies the place of w.

- 2. H is only a breathing, and not strictly entitled to the rank of a etter.
- 3. J and v did not originally belong to the Latin: their places were supplied respectively by i and u, which were used both as vowels and as consonants.

4. K is seldom used, and y and z occur only in words of Greek origin.

3. Classes of Letters.—Letters are divided into two classes:

I. Vou	els, .						a	a, e, i, o, u, y.
	isonants							
1.	Liquids	, .					. 1	, m, n, r.
2.	Spirant	s, .					1	h, s.
3.	Mutes:	1) La	oials,				. 1	p, b, f, v.
		2) Pa	latals	, .			(c, g, k, q, j.
		3) Lir						
4.	Double							

4. Combinations of Letters.—We notice here.

- 1. Diphthongs—combinations of two vowels in one syllable. The most common are-ae, oe, au.
 - 2. Double Consonants—x = cs or gs; z = ds or ts.
- 3. Ch, ph, th are best treated, not as combinations of letters, but only as aspirated forms of c, p, and t, as h is only a breathing.

SOUNDS OF LETTERS.

5. Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they do their own languages. this country, however, two distinct systems are recognized, generally known as the English and the Continental Method. For the convenience of the instructor, we add a brief outline of each.

I. ENGLISH METHOD.

1. Sounds of Vowels.

6. Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds. But

1. These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the

consonants which accompany them.

2. R, final, or followed by another consonant, greatly obscures the vowel sound. Before r thus situated, e, i, and u are scarcely distinguishable from each other, as in the English her, fir, fur, while a and o are pronounced as in far, for, but between qu and rt, a approaches the sound of o: quar-tus, as in quarter.

3. Dr, following qua, gives to a something of the sound of o: quad'-

rupes, as in quadruped.

7. Long Sound.—Vowels have their long English sounds

¹ Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the continent of Europe has its own method.

—a as in fate, e in mete, i in pine, o in note, u in tube, y in type—in the following situations:

1. In final syllables ending in a vowel: 1 se, si, ser'-vi, ser'-vo, cor'-nu, mi'-sy.

2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong: de'-us, de-o'-rum, de'-ae, di-e'-i, ni'-hi-lum.²

3. In penultimate and unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant or a mute with l or r: pa'-ter, pa'-tres, A'-thos, O'-thrys, do-lo'-ris. But

1) A unaccented has the sound of a final in America; men'-sa.

2) A after qu. See 6. 2.

3) I (also y) unaccented, not final, generally has the short sound of e; nobilis (nob'-e-lis), Amycus (Am'-e-cus). But in the first syllable of a word it has—(1) before an accented vowel or diphthong, its long sound, di'-e-bus; and (2) before a single consonant or a mute with l or r, sometimes the long sound, i-do'-nc-us; and sometimes the short sound, philosophus (phe-los'-o-phus).

4) I and u in special combinations. See 9. 2 and 4.

5) Before bl, gl, tl.—U has the short sound before bl; and the other

vowels before gl and tl: Pub-lic'-o-la, Ag-la'-o-phon, At'-las.

- 6) In compounds, when the first part is entire and ends in a consonant, any rowel before such consonant has generally the short sound: a in ab'-es, e in red'-it, i in in'-it, o in ob'-it, prod'-est. But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the long sound before a consonant (8. 1), retain that sound in compounds: post-quam, hos'-ce.
- 8. Short Sound.—Vowels have the short English sound —a as in fat, e in met, i in pin, o in not, u in tub, y in myth—in the following situations:
- 1. In final syllables ending in a consonant: a'-mat, a'-met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, Te'-thys; except post, es final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, a'-gros.
- 2. In all syllables before x, or any two consonants except a mute with l or r (7, 3): rex'-it, bel'-lum, rex-e'-runt, bel-lo'-rum.
- 3. In all accented syllables before one or more consonants, except the penultimate: dom'-i-nus, pat'-ri-bus. But
 - 1) A, e, or o, before a single consonant (or a mute with l or r) fol-

¹ Some give to i in both syllables of tibi and sibi the short sound.

² In these rules no account is taken of h, as that is only a breathing: hence the first i in *nihilum* is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, eh, ph, and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athos and Othrys.

³ Penultimate, the last syllable but one.

lowed by c, i, or y, before another vowel, has the long sound: a'-ci-cs, a'-cri-a, me'-rc-o, do'-ce-o.

2) U, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute with l or r, except bl (7.5), has the long sound: Pu-ni-cus, sa-lu'-bri-tas.

3) Compounds. See 7. 6).

2. Sounds of Diphthongs.

9. Ae and oe are pronounced like e:

1) long: Cae'-sar (Ce'-sar), Oe'-ta (E'-ta).

2) short: Daed'-ă-lus (Ded'-a-lus), Oed'-ă-pus

Au, as in author: au'-rum.

Eu, . . . neuter: neu'-ter.

1. Ei and oi are seldom diphthongs, but when so used they are pro-

nounced as in height, coin: hei, proin. See Synaeresis, 669. II.

2. I between an accented a, c, o, or y and another vowel has the sound of y consonant in yes: Acha'ia (A-ka'-ya), Pompe'ius (Pom-pe'-yus), Latoia (La-to'-ya), Harpyia (Har-py'-ya). These combinations of i with the following vowel are sometimes called semi-consonant diphthongs.

3. Ui, as a diphthong with the long sound of i, occurs in evi, hui, huie.
4. U, with the sound of v, sometimes unites with the following vowel or diphthong:—(1) after q; qui (kwi), qua, que, quae:—(2) generally after q; lingua (lin'-gwa), lin'-gui, lin'-guie:—(3) sometimes after s; sua'-deo (swa'-deo). These combinations of u are analogous to those of i mentioned

above under 2.

3. Sounds of Consonants.

10. The consonants are pronounced in general as in English, but a few directions may aid the learner.

11. C, G, S, T, and X are generally pronounced with

their ordinary English sounds. Thus,

- 1. C and g are soft (like s and j) before c, i, y, ae and oe, and hard in other situations: ce'-do (sedo), ci'-vis, Cy'-rus, cae'-do, coe'-na, a'-ge (a-je), a'-gi; ca'-do (ka'-do), co'-go, cum, Ga'-dez. But
 - 1) Ch is hard like k; chorus (ko'-rus), Chi-os (Ki'os). But see 13. 2.

2) G has the soft sound before g soft: ag'-ger.

2. S generally has its regular English sound, as in son, thus: sa'-cer, so'-ror, si'-dus. But

1) S final, after e, ac, au, b, m, n, r, is pronounced like z: spes, praes,

laus, urbs, hi'-ems, mons, pars.

- 2) In a few words s has the sound of z, because so pronounced in English words derived from them: Cae'-sar, Caesar; cau'-sa, cause; mu'-sa, muse; mi'-ser, miser; phys'-t-cus, physic, etc.
 - 3. T has its regular English sound, as in time: ti-mor, to-tus.
- 4. X has generally its regular English sound like ks; rex'-i (rek'-si), ux'-or (uk'-sor). But

1) At the beginning of a word it has the sound of z: Xan'-thus (Zanthus).

2) Between e or u and an accented vowel, it has the sound of qz: czi'-lis (egzi'lis, as in exile); ux-o'-ri-us (ugzo're-us, as in uxorious).

- 12. C, S, T, and X-Aspirated.—Before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel, c, s, t, and x are aspirated—c, s, and t taking the sound of sh, x that of ksh: so'-ci-us (so'-she-us), Al'-si-um (Al'she-um), ar'-tium (ar'she-um); anx'-i-us (ank'-she-us). C has also the sound of sh before eu and yo preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ca-du'-she-us), Sic'-y-on (Sish'-e-on). But
- 1. S, immediately preceded by an accented vowel and followed by i with another vowel, has the sound of zh: Moe'-si-a (Me'-zh-a). But some proper nouns retain the sound of sh: A'-si-a (A'-sh-a), Lys'-i-as, So'-si-a, The o-do'-si-a, Tys'-i-as.

2. T loses the aspirate—(1) after s, i, or x; Os'-ti-a, At'-ti-us, mix'ti-o:—(2) in old infinitives in ier; flec'-ti-er:—(3) generally in proper

names in tion (tyon): Phi-lis'-ti-on, Am-phic'-ty-on.

13. Silent Consonants —An initial consonant, with or without the aspirate h, is sometimes silent: Thus

1. C before n: Cne'-us (Ne'-us).

2. Ch or ph before a mute: Chtho'-ni-a (Thonia), Phthi'-a (Thia).

3. G or m before n: gna'-rus; Mne'-mon. P before s or t: Psy'-che, Ptol'-e-mae'-us.
 T before m: Tmo'-lus.

II. CONTINENTAL METHOD.

1. Sounds of Vowels.

14. Each vowel has in the main one uniform sound, but the length or duration of the sound depends upon the quantity of the vowel. See 20.

The vowel sounds are as follows:

a like \ddot{a} in father: e. g. a'-ra.

e	ā	made:	ple'-bes.
i	ē	me:	i' - γ - i .
0	ō	no:	o'- ro .
u	ô	do:	u'- num .
21	ē	me:	Nu' -s α .

¹ These sounds sometimes undergo slight modifications in uniting with the various consonants.

2. Sounds of Diphthongs.

15. Ae and oe like a in made, e. g. ae'-tas, coe'-lum.

au " ou" out, " au'-rum.

3. Sounds of Consonants.

16. The pronunciation of the consonants is similar to that of the English method, but it varies somewhat in different countries.

SYLLABLES.

- 17. In the pronunciation of Latin, every word has as many syllables as it has vowels and diphthongs; thus the Latin words, more, vice, acute, and persuade are pronounced, not as the same words are in English, but with their vowel sounds all heard in separate syllables; thus, mo'-re, vi'-ce, a-cu'-te, per-sua'-de.
 - 18. Simple words are divided into syllables as follows:
- 1. After a vowel (or diphthong), with the Long Sound (7), consonants must be joined to the following vowel: pa'-ter, pa'-tres, a-gro'-rum, sa-cro'-rum, au-di'-vi.
 - 2. After a vowel with the Short Sound (8),
- A single or double consonant is joined to such vowel, except after i unaccented: gen'-e-ri, rex'-i, dom'-i-nus.
- 2) Two consonants are separated: bel'-lum, men'-sa, pat'-ri-bus. But x following a consonant must be joined to the preceding syllable: Xerx'-cs, anx'-i-us.
- 3) Of three or more consonants, the last, or, if a mute with l or r, the last two must be joined to the following vowel: emp'-tus, tem'-plum, claus'-tra, trans'-tra.

19. Compounds are divided into syllables,

- 1. Generally like simple words: ed'-o-mo (e, domo), an-tef'-e-ro (ante, fero), be-nev'-o-lens (bene, volens), mag-nan'-i-mus (magnus, animus).
- 2. But if the first part is entire and ends in a consonant, the compound is resolved into its component parts: ab'-es, ab-i'-re.

¹ In other combinations, the two vowels are generally pronounced separately, but ϵi and ϵu occur as diphthongs with nearly the same sound as in English.

QUANTITY.

- 20. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common.
 - 21. Long.—A syllable is long in quantity,
 - 1. If it contains a diphthong: haec.
- 2. If its vowel is followed by j, x, z, or any two consonants, except a mute with l or r: rex, mons.
- 22. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel or a diphthong: di'-es, vi'-ae, ni'-hil.²
- 23. Common.—A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute with l or r: a'-gri.
- 24. The signs $\bar{\ \ }$, $\bar{\ \ }$ denote respectively that the syllables over which they are placed are long, short, or common: \bar{a} -gr \bar{o} -r \bar{u} m.

ACCENTUATION.

I. PRIMARY ACCENT.

- 25. Monosyllables are treated as accented syllables: mons, nos.
 - 26. Other words are accented as follows:3
 - 1. Words of two syllables—always on the first: men'-sa.
- 2. Words of more than two syllables—on the penult ' if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the antepenult: ' hono-roi-ris, con'-sū-lis. But
- 1) Genitives in i for ii and vocatives in i for ic retain the accent of the full form: in-ge'-ni for in-ge'-ni-i; Mer-cu'-ri for Mer-cu'-ri-e.
 - 2) Penults common in quantity take the accent when used as long.
 - 3) Compounds are accented like simple words; but
- (a) The enclitics, que, ve, ne, appended to words accented on the antepenult, throw back their accent upon the last syllable of that word: hom'-i-ne'-que, hom'-i-nes'-que.
- (b) Facio compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: cal-e-fa'-cit.

¹ Common, i. e. sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

² No account is taken of the breathing h (2. 2).

³ In the subsequent pages the pupil will be expected to accent words in pronunciation according to these rules. The quantity of the penult in words of more than two syllables will therefore be marked (unless determined by 21 and 22), to enable him to ascertain the place of the accent.

⁴ Penult, last syllable but one; antepenult, the last but two.

II. SECONDARY ACCENTS.

- 27. A second accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent,—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: mon'-u-e'-runt; mon'-u-e-ra'-mus; in-stau'-ra-ve'-runt.
- 28. In the same way, a third accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the second accent: hon'-o-rif'-i-ccn-tis'-si-mus.

PART SECOND.

ETYMOLOGY.

- 29. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
- 30. The Parts of Speech are—Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

- 31. A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: Cicero, Cicero; Rōma, Rome; puer, boy; dōmus, house.
- A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place: Cieëro, Rôma

2. A Common Noun is a name common to all the members of a class

of objects: vir, a man; čquus, horse. Common nouns include

1) Collective Nouns—designating a collection of objects: populus,

people; exercitus, army.

2) Abstract Nouns—designating properties or qualities: virtus, vir-

tue; justitia, justice.
3) Material Nouns—designating materials as such: aurum, gold;

lignum, wood; ăqua, water.

- 32. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case. GENDER.
- 33. There are three genders—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
- 34. In some nouns, gender is determined by signification; in others, by endings.

35. General Rules for Gender.

- I. MASCULINES.
- 1. Names of Males: Cicero; vir, man; rex, king.
- 2. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months: Rhēnus, Rhine; Notus, south wind; Aprīlis, April.
 - II. FEMININES.
 - 1. Names of Females: mulier, woman; leaena, lioness.
- 2. Names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: Aegyptus, Egypt; Rôma, Rome; Dēlos, Delos; pirus, pear tree.

III. NEUTERS.

- 1. Indeclinable Nouns: fas, right; nihil, nothing.
- 2. Words and Clauses used as indeclinable nouns: triste vale, a sad farewell; difficile est amicitiam manere, it is difficult for friendship to continue.1

36. Remarks on Gender.

1. Exceptions.—The endings 2 of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules. Thus,

1) The names of rivers—Albūla, Allia, Lethe, Styx, and sometimes

others, are feminine by ending.

2) Some names of countries, towns, islands, trees, and animals take

the gender of their endings. See 47. 1.

2. Masculine or Feminine.—A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and a few names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are generally masculine: civis, citizen (man or woman); comes, companion; bos, ox, cow.
3. Mobile Nouns have different forms for different genders: filius,

filia, son, daughter; rex, regina, king, queen; lco, leaena, lion, lioness.

4. Epicene Nouns have but one gender, but are used for both sexes. They apply only to the inferior animals, and usually take the gender of their endings: anser, goose (male or female), masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

37. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.

¹ Here vale and the clause amicitiam manere are both used as neuter nonns.

² Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

CASES.

38. The Latin has six cases:

Names. English Equivalents.

Nominative, Nominative.

Genitive, Possessive, or Objective with of.

Dative, Objective with to or for.

Accusative, Objective.

Vocative, Nominative Independent.

Ablative, Objective with from, by, in, with.

- Oblique Cases.—In distinction from the Nominative and Vocative (casus recti, right cases), the other cases are called oblique (casus obliqui).
- 2. Case-Endings.—In form the several cases are in general distinguished from each other by certain terminations called *case-endings*: Nom. *mensa*, Gen. *mensae*, &c.
 - 3. Cases Alike.—But certain cases are not distinguished in form. Thus,
- 1) The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.
- 2) The Nominative and Vocative are alike in all pure Latin nouns, except those in us of the second declension (45).
 - 3) The Dative and Ablative Plural are alike.

DECLENSIONS.

- 39. The formation of the several cases is called Declension.
- 40. Five Declensions.—In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the following

Genitive Endings.

Dec. I. Dec. II. Dec. III. Dec. IV. Dec. V. ae, $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$, $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$ s, $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ s, $e\bar{\mathbf{i}}$.

- 41. Stem and Endings.—In any noun, of whatever declension,
- 1. The stem may be found by dropping the ending of the genitive singular.
- 2. The several cases may be formed by adding to this stem the case-endings.

FIRST DECLENSION.

42. Nouns of the first declension end in

ă and ē,—feminine; ās and ēs,—masculine.

But pure Latin nouns end only in α , and are declined as follows:

		SINGULAR.	
	Example.	Meaning.	Case-Endings.
Nom.	mensă,	a table,	ă
Gen.	mensae,	of a table,	ae
Dat.	mensae,	to, for a table,	ae
Acc.	mensäm,	a table,	ăm
Voc.	mensã,	$O\ table,$	ă
Abl.	mensī,	with, from, by a table,	ā
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	mensae,	tables,	ae
Gen.	mensāriem,	of tables,	ārŭm
Dat.	mensīs,	to, for tables,	īs
Acc.	mensās.	tables,	ās

 Case-Endings.—From an inspection of this example, it will be seen that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.

O tables.

īs.

with, from, by tables.

2. Examples for Practice.—With these endings decline:

Ala, wing; ăqua, water; causa, cause; fortuna, fortune; porta, gate; victoria, victory.

3. Irregular Case-Endings.—The following occur:

Voc.

Abl.

mensac.

mens Es,

- As for ae in the Gen. of familia, in composition with pater, mater, filius, and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
 - 2) Ai for the genitive ending ae, in the poets: aulāi for aulae, of a hall.
- 3) **Um** for arum in the Gen. Plur.: Dardanidum for Dardanidarum, of the descendants of Dardanus.
- 4) Abus for is in the Dat. and Abl. Plur., especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son.
- 4. Article.—The Latin has no article. A Latin noun may therefore, according to the connection in which it is used, be translated either without any article, with a or an, or with the: cŏrōna, crown, a crown, the crown.

43. Greek Nouns.—Nouns of this declension in e, as, and es are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

Epitome, epitome. Aenēas, Aeneas. Pyrītes, pyrites.

	SINGULAR.	
N. ĕpĭtŏm&	$\mathbf{\Lambda}$ enē $\mathbf{ar{a}s}$	pÿrīt ēs
G . epitŏm $ar{f e}$ s	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
D . epitŏm \mathbf{ae}	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
A. epitŏm ēn	Aenē ăm, ā m	pyrît en
V . epitŏm $oldsymbol{ar{e}}$	\mathbf{A} enē $\mathbf{ar{a}}$	pyrīt ē, ā
A . epitŏm $ar{f e}$	Aenēā.	pyrīt ē, ā

PLURAL.

N. ĕpĭtŏm ae	pўrīt ae		
G. epitomārum	pyrit ā r ŭ m r		
D. epitŏmīs	pyrīt īs		
Λ. epitŏm ās	pyrīt ās		
V. epitŏm ae	pyrīt ae		
A. epitomīs.	pyrītīs. 🗸		

- 1. Examples for Practice.—Aloc, aloe; borcas, north wind; comètes, comet.
- 2. Paradigms.—Observe 1) That in the Plur. and in the Dat. Sing., Greek nouns are declined like *mensa*, and 2) That in the Gen. Sing., only those in e depart from the regular ending ae.
- 3. Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a, and are declined like mensa. Many in e have also a form in a; epitôme, epitôma, epitôme.

44. Gender in First Declension.

Feminine endings: a, e. Masculine endings! as, es.

EXCEPTIONS.—Masculine—(1) a few in a by signification: poëla, poet; agricòla, husbandman. See 35. 1.—(2) Hadria, Adriatic sea; sometimes $d\bar{a}ma$, deer, and talpa, mole.—

SECOND DECLENSION.

45. Nouns of the second declension end in

ĕr, ĭr, ŭs, os,—masculine; ŭm, on,—neuter.

But pure Latin nouns end only in er, ir, us, um, and are declined as follows:

Servus, slave. Puer, boy. Ager, field. Templum, temple.

	S	INGULAR.	
N. servüs	puĕr	ăgĕr	templ ŭm
G. servĭ	puěr ī	ăgrī	templ
D . serv $\mathbf{\tilde{o}}$	puĕr ō	$\operatorname{agr}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	$\operatorname{templ}\mathbf{ar{o}}$
A. serviim	puěr řím	agr ŭm	templ ürer
V. servě	puĕr	agĕr	templ ăm
A. servõ	puĕr ō	agr ō	$\operatorname{templ}{\bf \bar{o}}$
	:	PLURAL.	
N. servī	puĕr ī	ăgr ī	$\operatorname{templ} \mathbf{\breve{a}}$
G. serv ör ňm	puěr orům	agr örüm	templ örüm
D. servis	puĕr īs	agr īs	templīs
A. serv ōs	puĕr ōs	agr ōs	. templ ă
V. servī	puěr ī	agrī	templ ă
4. servīs.	puĕr īs.	agrīs.	templIs.

1. Case-Endings.—From an inspection of the paradigms it will be seen that they are declined with the following

		Case-Endings.		
1.	ŭs.	2. ĕr.	3.	ŭm.
		SINGULAR.		
N.	ŭs	1		ŭm
G.		ī		ī
D.	ō	Ō		õ
A.	ŭm	ŭm		ŭm
V.	ĕ	1		ŭm
Λ .	ō	ō		ō
		PLURAL.		
N.	ī	ī		ă
G.	ōrŭm	ōrŭm		ōrŭm
D.	īs	īs		īs
A.	õs	ōs		ă
V.		Ĭ		ă
A.	īs.	īs.		īs. 🤯
				4

- 2. Examples for Practice.—Like servus: annus, year; dominus, master.—Like puer: gener, son-in-law; soccr, father-in-law.—Like ager: füber, artisan; magister, master.—Like templum: bellum, war; regnum, kingdom.
 - 3. Paradigms.—Observe
 - 1) That puer differs in declension from servus only in dropping the

The endings for the Nom. and Voc. Sing. are wanting in nouns in cr; thus puer is the stem without any case-ending; the full form would be puerus.

endings us and e in the Nom. and Voc.; Nom. puer for puerus, Voc. puer for puere.

2) That ager differs from puer only in dropping e before r.1

- 3) That templum, as a neuter noun, has the Nom., Accus., and Voc. alike, ending in the plural in a. See 38. 3.
- 34. Ager and Puer.—Most nouns in er are declined like ager, but the following in er and ir are declined like puer.
 - 1) Nouns in ir: vir, viri, man.
- 2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigëri, armor-bearer; signifer, signifëri, standard-bearer.
 - 3) Adulter, adulterer; Liber, Bacchus; presbyter, elder. Celtiber, Celtiberian; liberi, children; sŏcer, father-in-law. Mulciber, Vulcan; vesper, evening.

 [Iber, Spaniard.]
 - 5. Irregular Case-Endings.—The following occur:

1) I for ii by contraction, in the Gen. Sing. without change of accent: ingë ni for inge nii, of talent.

2) I for *ie*, common in proper names in *ius*, without change of accent: Merci'ri for Mercu'rie, Mercury. Also in *fili* for *filie*, son; geni for genie, guardian spirit.

3) $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{S}}$ for e in the Voc., the regular form in deus, god, but rare in other

words.

- 4) Um for örum, common in a sew words denoting money, weight, and measure: talentum for talentörum, of talents; also in a sew other words: deum for deörum; liberum for liberörum; Argīvum for Argīvorum.
- 6. Deus.—This has, Voc. Sing., deus; Nom. Plur., dei, dii, di; Gen., deorum, deum; Dat. and Abl., deis, diis, dis; otherwise regular.

46. Greek Nouns.

Nouns of this declension in os and on are of Greek origin.

- 1. Nouns in os are generally declined like those in us, except in the accusative singular, where they have on: Dēlos, Delō, Delō, Delōn, etc., island Delos.
- 2. Nouns in on are declined like templum, with on for um in the nominative, accusative, and vocative.
- 3. Most Greek nouns generally assume in prose the Latin forms in us and um, but sometimes, especially in poetry, they retain in one or more cases the peculiar endings of the Greek. Thus,

¹ In puer, e belongs to the stem, and is accordingly retained in all the cases; but in ager it is inserted in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., as the pure stem agr would be difficult to pronounce.

² Celtiber and Iber have e long in the Gen., and Mulciber sometimes drops e.

- 1) Genitive Singular, & (rarely u): Androgeo from Androgeos.
- 2) Accusative " o or on: Atho, Athon " Athos.
- 3) Nominative Piural, oe: cănēphŏroe " cănēphŏrŏs.
- 4) Genitive " ōn (om): būcolicon " būcolicon.
- 5) Greek nouns in eus admit certain forms of the third declension: Orpheus; G., Orpheos; D., Orpheo; A., Orphea; V., Orpheu.—Panthus has Voc. Panthu, and pelugus, Plur. peluge.

×47. Gender in Second Declension.

Masculine endings: er, ir, us, os.

Neuter endings: um, on.

I. FEMININE BY EXCEPTION.

1. Nouns feminine by signification: Acgyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth. See 35. 2, but observe that

Many names of countries, towns, islands, and trees follow the gender of their endings.—(1) COUNTRIES: Bospörus, Isthmus, Pontus, masculine by ending; those in um and plurals in a, neuter by ending.—(2) Towns: Canöpus and plurals in i, masculine; those in um and plurals in a, neuter.—(3) ISLANDS: those in um and plurals in a, neuter.—(4) TREES: oleaster and pinaster, masculine. Some names of shrubs and plants are feminine, like those of trees, while others take the gender of their endings.

- 2. Other Feminine exceptions are
- 1) Most names of gems and ships: amethystus, sapphīrus.
- 2) Alvus, belly; carbăsus, sail; cŏlus, distaff; hŭmus, ground; rannus, sieve.
- 3) Many Greek feminines, as (1) nouns in ŏdus, metros, thongus: periŏdus, period; diamětros, diameter; diphthongus, diphthong; (2) abyssus, abyss; atŏmus, atom; dialectos, dialect.
 - II. NEUTER BY EXCEPTION.

Pelăgus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus (rarely mase.), common people.

THIRD DECLENSION.

48. Nouns of the third declension end in

a, e, i, o, y, c, l, n, r, s, t, x.

I. MASCULINE ENDINGS:

o, or, os, er, es increasing in the genitive.

II. FEMININE ENDINGS:

as, is, ys, x, es not increasing in the genitive, s preceded by a consonant.

III. NEUTER ENDINGS:

a, e, i, y, c, l, n, t, ar, ur, us.

- 49. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
- I. Nouns which have a case-ending in the nominative singular. These all end in e, s, or x.

II. Nouns which have no case-ending in the nominative singular.

In class II. the Nom. Sing, is either the same as the stem, or is formed from it by dropping or changing one or more letters of the stem: consul, Gen. consulis; stem, consul, a consul; leo, leonis, stem, leon (Nom. drops n), lion; carmen, carminis, stem, carmin (Nom. changes in to en), song.

50. Class I.—With Nominative Ending.

I. Nouns in es, is, s impure, and x:—with stem unchanged in nominative.

Nubes, f .	Avis, f .	Urbs, f .	Rex, m .
cloud.	bird.	city.	king.
		SINGULAR.	
N . nūb $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}$	ăvĭs	urb s	rex 1
G. nub ĭs	avĭs	$\mathbf{urb}\mathbf{\check{s}}$	rēg ĭs
D. nub ī	avī	$\mathbf{urb}\mathbf{\bar{1}}$	reg I
A. nub ěm	av ĕm	urb ěm	reg ĕm
V. nubēs	avĭs	${f urbs}$	rex
Λ . nub $oldsymbol{\check{e}}$	av č ³	urb č	reg
		PLURAL.	
N . nub $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}$	avēs	urb ēs	$\operatorname{reg}\mathbf{ar{e}s}$
G. nubiŭm	avitana	urbinn	regum
D. nub ĭbŭs	avibus	urb ĭbŭs	reg ĭbŭs
A. nub ēs	av ēs	$\mathrm{urb}\mathbf{ar{e}s}$	reg ēs
V. nub ēs	avēs	$\mathrm{urb}\mathbf{ar{e}s}$	$\operatorname{reg}\mathbf{ar{e}s}$
A. nub ĭbŭs.	av ĭbŭs.	urb ĭbŭs.	reg ĭbŭs.

II. Nouns in **es, is, s** impure, and **x**:—with stem changed in nominative.

Miles, m .	Lapis, m.	Ars, f.	Judex, m . and f .
soldier.	stone.	art.	judge.
	S	INGULAR.	
N . mīlě \mathbf{s}	lăpis	ars	jūdex 1
G. milĭt ĭs	lapĭd ĭs	art ĭs	judicis
D . milĭt $oldsymbol{ar{\imath}}$	lapĭd ī	artI	judie T
A. milit ěm	lapĭd ĕm	art ĕm	judĭe ĕm
V. milěs	lapĭs	ars	judex
1. milĭtĕ	lapĭd ĕ	art ĕ	judĭcĕ
		PLURAL.	
N. milĭt ēs	lapĭd $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}$	art ēs	judĭc ēs
G. milit um	lapĭd ŭm	art iŭm i	judře vana

¹ X in rex = gs-g belonging to the stem, and s being the nom. ending; but in judex, x = cs-c belonging to the stem, and s being the nom. ending.

² Impure, i. e., preceded by a consonant. 3 Sometimes avi.

D.	milit ĭbŭs	lapid ĭbŭs	art ĭbŭs	judic ĭbŭs
A.	militēs	lapĭd ēs	artēs	judře ēs
V.	milit ēs	lapĭd ēs	artēs	judic ēs
A.	militībŭs.	lapid ībŭs.	artībūs.	judic ībŭs.

III. Nouns in as, os, us, and e:-those in as, os, and us with stem changed, those in e with stem unchanged.

(Sivitas, f .	Nepos, m .	\forall irtus, f .	Mare, n .
	state.	grandson.	virtue.	sea.
			SINGULAR.	
N.	cīvitās	něpō s	virtūs	mărĕ
G.	civitāt ĭs	nepōt ĭs	virtūtĭs	marĭs
D.	civitāt ī	nepōt ī	virtūt ī	marI
A.	civitāt ĕm	nepōt ěm	virtūt ĕm	marĕ
V.	civĭtās	nepōs	virtūs	marĕ
A.	civitātĕ	nepōt ĕ	virtūt ĕ	marī 2
			PLURAL.	
N.	civĭtāt ēs	nepōt ēs	virtūt ē s	mariă
G.	civitāt ŭm 1	nepōt ŭm	virtūt ŭrn	maritana
D.	civitat ībŭs	nepot ĭbŭs	virtut ĭbŭs	maribus
A.	civitāt ēs	nepõt ēs	virtūt ēs	maržă
V.	civitāt ēs	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	mariă
A.	civitat ĭbŭs.	nepotĭ bŭs.	virtut ībŭs.	marībŭs.

51. Class II.—WITHOUT NOMINATIVE ENDING.

I. Nouns in 1 and r:-with stem unchanged in nominative.

Sol, m .	Consul, m .	Passer, m .	Vultur, m .
sun.	consul.	sparrow.	vulture.
	S	INGULAR.	
N. sõl	consŭl	passĕr	vultŭr
G. sõl is	consŭlĭs	passēr īs	vultŭr is
D. solī	consŭl ī	passĕr ī	vultŭrI
A. söl ĕm	consŭl ëm	passër ëm	vultŭr ëm
V. sõl	consŭl	passĕr	vultŭr
A. sõlĕ	cons ŭl $oldsymbol{\check{e}}$	passĕr ĕ	vultŭr č
		PLURAL.	
N. sõl ēs	consŭl ēs	passěr ēs	vultŭr ēs
G.	consŭlŭm	passěr řím	vultür üm
D. söl ĭbŭs	consulibus	passer ĭbŭs	vultur ĭbŭs

Sometimes civitatium. 2 Sometimes mare in poetry.

A.	sõl ēs	consŭl ēs	passĕr ēs	* vultŭr ēs
V.	sõl ēs	consŭl ēs	passĕr ēs	vultŭr ēs
A.	solibus.	consulĭbŭs.	passeribus.	vulturăbăs.

II. Nouns in \mathbf{o} and \mathbf{r} :—with stem changed in nominative.

lion. maiden. father. shepherd. SINGULAR. N. leo virgo păter pastor G. leonis virginis pătris pastoris D. leoni virgini patri pastori A. leonem virginem pater pastorem V. leo virgo pater pastore A. leone virgine patre pastore M. leone virgine patre pastore FLURAL. N. leones virgines patres pastores G. leonimu virginimu patrimu pastorimu D. leonibus virginimu patrimu pastorimu D. leonibus virgines patres pastores V. leones virgines patres pastores V. leones virgines patres pastores A. leonibus. virginibus. patribus.	Leo, m .	Virgo, f .	Pater, m.	Pastor, m .
N. leo virgo pătěr pastôr G. leōnǐs virginǐs pătrǐs pastōrǐs D. leōnǐ virginī patrī pastōrī A. leōněm virginěm patřem pastōrēm V. leo virgo patěr pastôr A. leōně virgině patrě pastôrě M. leōně virgině patrě pastōrě FLURAL. N. leōnēs virginēs patrěs pastōrēs G. leōněm virginěm patrům pastōrěm D. leonǐbňs virginěm patrům pastōrěm A. leōnēs virginěs patrůbňs pastorěs V. leōnēs virginēs patrěs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs	lion.	maiden.	father.	shepherd.
G. leōnis virginis pătris pastoris D. leōni virgini patri pastorii A. leōni virgini patri pastorii A. leōni virgini patri pastorii V. leo virgo patri pastori A. leōni virgini patri pastorii A. leōni virgini patri pastorii A. leōni virgini patri patri PLURAL. M. leōni virgini patri patri pastorii D. leonii virginii patri patri pastorii D. leonii virginii patri patri pastorii A. leōni virginii patri patri D. leonii virginii patri patri D. leonii virginii patri		2	SINGULAR.	
D. leōnī virginī patrī pastōrī A. leōnēm virginēm patrēm pastōrēm V. leo virgo patrē pastōrē A. leōnē virginē patrē pastōrē PLURAL. M. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs G. leōnām virginām patrām pastōrām D. leonībās virginībās patrībās pastorēs A. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastorēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs	N. leo	virgo	pătĕr	pastŏr
A. leōnēm virginēm patrēm pastōrēm V. leo virgo pater pastōrēm A. leōnē virginē patrē pastōrē PLURAL. M. leōnēs virginēm patrēm pastōrēs G. leōnām virginām patrām pastōrām D. leonībās virginām patrām pastōrām D. leonībās virginābās patrībās pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs	G . leōn $\mathbf{\tilde{s}}$	virgĭnĭs	pătr ĭs	pastōr ĭs
V. leo virgo pater pastor A. leōnē virginē patrē pastōrē PLURAL. N. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs G. leōnām virginām patrām pastōrām D. leonībās virginībās patrībās pastōrēs A. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs	D. leon t	virgĭnī	patra	pastör ī
A. leōně virgíně patrě pastörě PLURAL. N. leōnēs virgínēs patrēs pastörës G. leōnăm virgínăm patrăm pastörăm D. leoněbăs virgíněs patrěbăs pastorěs A. leōnēs virgínēs patrēs pastörēs V. leōnēs virgínēs patrēs pastörēs	A. leon ěm	virgĭn ĕm	patr ěm	pastör ĕm
PLURAL. N. leōnēs virgīnēs patrēs pastōrēs G. leōn ăm virgīn ām patr ām pastōr ām D. leon ībās virgīn ībās patr ībās pastor ībās A. leōnēs virgīnēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virgīnēs patrēs pastōrēs	V. leo	virgo	patĕr	pastŏr
N. leönēs virginēs patrēs pastörēs G. leönām virginām patrām pastörām D. leonībūs virginībūs patrībūs pastorībūs A. leönēs virginēs patrēs pastörēs V. leönēs virginēs patrēs pastörēs	A. leon ĕ	virgĭn ĕ	$patr\mathbf{reve{c}}$	past $ar{\mathbf{e}}$
G. leōn ăm virgin ăm patr ăm pastor ăm D. leon ībūs virgin ībūs patr ābūs pastor ībūs Λ. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs			PLURAL.	
D. leonībās virginībās patrībās pastorībās A. leonēs virginēs patrēs pastorēs V. leonēs virginēs patrēs pastorēs	N . leon $ar{f e}s$	virgĭnēs	patr ēs	pastőr és
A. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs V. leōnēs virginēs patrēs pastōrēs	G. leonvara	virgin čim	patricul	pastorium
V. leon ēs virgin ēs patr ēs pastor ēs	D. leon ib is	virgin ĭləŭs	patrī b ŭs	pastor ĭbŭs
	A. leon ēs	virgĭn ēs	patr ēs	pastōr ēs
A. leonibus. virginibus. patribus. pastoribus.	V. leon ēs	virgĭn ēs	patrēs	pastōr ēs
-	A. leonibus.	virginībus.	patr ībŭs.	pastor ĭbŭs.

III. Nouns in en, us, and ut:—with stem changed in nominative.

Carmen, n .	Opus, n .	Corpus, n .	Capăt, n .
song.	work.	body.	head.
	:	SINGULAR.	
N. carměn	ŏpŭs	corpŭs	căpăt
G. carmin ĭs	opër ĭs	corpŏrĭs	capĭt ĭs
D. carmin ī	opěr i	corpŏr ī	capĭt ī
A. carměn	opŭs	corpŭs	capŭt
V. carměn	opŭs	corpŭs	capŭt
A . carmĭn $oldsymbol{\check{e}}$	opĕr ĕ	corpŏrĕ	c apĭt ĕ
		PLURAL.	
N. carmină	opěr ži	corpŏră	capĭt ži
G. carmin iem	opër iam	corpŏr ĭim	capitizera
D. carmin ībūs	oper ībĭis	corporibus	capit ibŭs
A. carmĭn ă	opěr ă	corpŏr ă	capĭt ă
V. carmĭn $old a$	opër ži	corpŏr	capĭt ă
A. carmin ĭbŭs	. operibus.	corporibus.	capitIbus.

- 52. Case-Endings.—From an inspection of the paradigms, it will be seen.
- 1. That the nouns belonging to Class II. differ from those of Class I. only in taking no case-ending in the nominative and vocative singular.
 - 2. That all nouns of both classes are declined with the following

Case-Endings.

SINGULAR.

7	fasc. and Fem.	Neuter.
Nom.	s 1 (es, is) 2	ĕ —— ²
Gen.	ĭs	ĭs
Dat.	ī	ī
Acc.	ěm (ĭm) ³	like nom.
Voc.	like nom.	"
Abl.	ĕ, ī	ĕ, ī

PLURAL

		PLUMAL.	
7	fase, and Fem.		Neuter.
Nom.	ēs		ă, iă
Gen.	ŭm, iŭm		ŭm, iŭm
Dat.	ĭbŭs		ĭbŭs
Acc.	ēs		ă, iă
Voc.	ēs		ă, iá
Abl.	ĭbŭs.		ībŭs.

- 53. Declension.4—To apply these endings in declension, we must know, besides the nominative singular,
- 1. The Gender, as that shows which set of endings must be used.
- 2. The Genitive Singular (or some oblique case), as that contains the stem (41) to which these endings must be added.

54. Examples for Practice:

Class I

C: 11.								
	Gen. rupis, f.	rock,		Gen. hospitis, m.	guest.			
vestis,	vestis, f.	garment;	euspis,	cuspidis, f.	spear.			
trabs,	trăbis, f.	beam;	mons,	montis, m.	mountain.			
lex,	lēgis, f.	law;	ăpex,	apřeis, m.	summit.			
libertas,	libertātis, f.	liberty;	sālus,	salūtis, f.	safety.			
sedīle,	sedīlis, n.	seat;						

 $^{{}^1}$ In nouns in x (= cs or gs), s is the case-ending, and the c or g belongs to the stem.

⁵ The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting, as in all nouns of Class II.

³ The enclosed endings are less common than the others.

⁴ For Irregularities see Formation of Cases (55-98) and Irregular Nouns.

Class II.

Exsul,	Gen. exsŭlis, m. and f .	exile; dŏlor,		
actio,	actionis, f.	action; imāgo,		
anser,		goose; frater,		
nomen,	nominis, n.	name; tempus	s, tempŏris, n.	time.

FORMATION OF CASES.

Nominative Singular.

- 55. The nominative singular may generally be formed from any oblique case in one of two ways:
- I. By changing the ending of the given case to the nominative ending
- s (es, is) in masculines and feminines; e in neuters: Acc. urbem, Nom. urbs; ävem, avis; nübem, nubes. So Gen. märis (neut.), Nom. mare.
- II. By dropping the ending of the given case: Gen. consulis, Nom. consul; passeris, passer; pastoris, pastor.
 - 1. The First Method applies in general to mute stems.

2. The Second Method applies to most liquid stems.

3. EUPHONIC CHANGES:

1) **T**, **d**, and **r** before **s** are dropped; **c** and **g** before **s** unite with it and form **x**; **i** is sometimes changed to **e**: Gen. civitātis, N. civītas (for civitātis, t dropped); G. milītis, N. mīles (milits, t dropped and i changed to e); G. rēgis, N. rex (regs).

2) The endings on and in of masc, and fem. stems are generally changed to o: G. leōnis, N. leo (for leon); G. virginis, N. virgo (for virgin). But in neuters in is changed to en: G. carminis, carmen (for carmin).

3) The endings er and or of neut. stems are generally changed to us: G. operis, N. opus (for oper): G. corporis, N. corpus (for corpor).

4) Other changes sometimes occur.

Genitive Singular.

I. GENERAL RULES.

- 56. Class I. forms the genitive singular by changing the nominative ending into is: mare, maris, sea; urbs, urbis, city; nūbes, nubis, cloud; hostis, hostis, enemy; arx (arcs), arcis, citadel; rex (regs), rēgis, king.
- 1. Class I. includes, it will be remembered, nouns in e, s (with a few exceptions), and z.

exceptions), and x.
2. The Nominative Ending in this class is

1) e in nouns in e: mare.

2) s in nouns in s; but if c or i precedes, it may be cs or is; thus it is s in urbs, cs in nubes, and is in hostis.

3) s in nouns in x: as the double consonant x = cs or gs, the c or g belongs to the stem and the s is the ending.

Accordingly the genitive changes the endings e, s, es, and is into is, as

above.

- 2. IRREGULARITIES AND EXCEPTIONS.—See special rules, 58-83.
- 57. Class II. forms the genitive by adding is to the nominative: sōl, sōlis, sun; carcer, carceris, prison; pastor, pastōris, shepherd; lien, liēnis, spleen.

1. CLASS II. includes all nouns of this declension not embraced under

Class I.

2. Changes and Irregularities.—See special rules.

II. SPECIAL RULES.

I. Words ending in a Vowel. Genitive Formation—Various.

Α.

58. Nouns in a form the genitive in atis; poēma, poemātis, poem. These are of Greek origin.

E.

59. Nouns in **e** form the genitive in **is**; mare, maris, sea.

I.

60. Nouns in i form the genitive in is, or are indeclinable: sināpi, sināpis, mustard.

Exceptions.—The compounds of měli form it in ĭtis: oxyměli, oxymelitis, oxymel.

ο.

61. Nouns in o form the genitive in onis: leo, leonis, lion; actio, actionis, action.

Exceptions.—The following form it in

- 1. ŏnis:-most national names, Macedo, Macedonis, Macedonian.
- inis:—Apollo; homo, man; nemo, nobody; turbo, whirlwind; and nouns in do and go: grando, grandinis, hail; virgo, virginis, maiden; except—harpago, onis; ligo, onis; praedo, onis, also comodo, cado, mango, spado, unido, ado.

3. nis: -căro, carnis, flesh.

- 4. ēnis: Anio, Aniēnis, river Anio; Nerio, Neriēnis.
- 5. us:—few Greek feminines: Dīdo, Didus.

Υ.

62. Nouns in y form the genitive in yis (yos, ys), or

are indeclinable: misy, misyis (misyos, misys) copperas. These are of Greek origin.

II. Words ending in Mutes or Liquids: c, l, n, r, t.
Genitive adds is.

C.

- 63. There are two nouns in c: ālec, alēcis, pickle; lac, lactis, milk.
- 64. Nouns in 1 form the genitive by adding is: sol, solls, sun.

1. Two add lis: -fel, fellis, gall; mel, mellis, honey.

2. Nouns in al lengthen a in the Gen.; animal, animalis, animal; except sal, salt, and masculine proper names: Hannibal, Hannibalis.

N.

- 65. Nouns in **n** form the genitive by adding **is**, but those in **ĕn** form it in **ĭnis**: paean, paeānis, paean; flūmen, flumīnis, stream.
- The few nouns in ēn (e long), mostly Greek, add is: liēn, liēnis, spleen.
- 2. Nouns in an, on, in, yn are Greek, and sometimes have os for is in the Gen.: Pān, Pānos for Panis, god Pan.—Some in on have onis or ontis: aēdon, aedonis, nightingale; Xenophon, Xenophontis.

R.

- 66. Nouns in **r** form the genitive by adding **is**: carcer, carceris, prison; fulgur, fulguris, lightning.
- 1. Nouns in ăr generally lengthen a in the Gen.: calcăr, calcāris, spur; but a few retain the short vowel.—Far, corn, has farris; hēpar, liver, hepātis.

2. Some nouns in er drop e in the genitive:

- 1) Those in ter: păter, patris, father; except lăter, latëris, tile, and Greek nouns: crāter, cratēris, bowl.
- 2) Imber and names of months in ber: imber, imbris, shower; September, Septembris.

3. Iler, way, has itineris; Jupiter, Jovis.

- 4. Nouns in or have generally oris: pastor, pastoris, shepherd; but a few retain the short vowel. Cor, heart, has cordis.
- 5. Four in ur have ŏris: ¿bur, ivory; fēmur, thigh; jēcur, liver; rōbur, strength; but femur has also femunis, and jecur, jecinoris, jecinoris, and jecuroris.

т.

- 67. Nouns in t form the genitive in itis: caput, capitis, head. Caput and its compounds are the only nouns in t.
- III. Words ending in S preceded by a Vowel or Diphthong.

Genitive Formation-Various.

AS.

68. Nouns in as form the genitive in ātis: aetas, aetātis, age; civitas, civitātis, state.

EXCEPTIONS.—The following form it in

- 1. ătis: -- ănas, anătis, duck, and neuter Greek nouns.
- ădis:—vas, vădis, surety; Arcas, Arcadian, and fem. Greek noune; lampas, lampădis, torch.
- 3. ăris: -mas, măris, a male.
- 4. āsis: -vas, vāsis, vessel.
- 5. assis:—as, assis, an as (a coin).
- 6. antis: -- only masc. Greek nouns; adamas, antis, adamant.

ES.

69. Nouns in ēs (e long) form the genitive in is: fames, famis, hunger; nūbes, nubis, cloud.

EXCEPTIONS.—The following form it in

- edis:—(1) ēdis: hēres, herēdis, heir; merces, reward.—(2) ĕdis: pes, pĕdis, foot.—(3) aedis: praes, praedis, surety.
- 2. eris:—(1) ĕris: Cĕres, Cerĕris.—(2) aeris: aes, acris, copper.
- etis:—(1) ētis: quies, rest, with compounds, inquies, requies, and a few Greek words: libes, tapes.—(2) ĕtis: abics, fir tree; aries, ram; paries, wall.
- 4. essis: -bes, bessis, two thirds.
- 5. i:-a few Greek proper names: Xerxes, i.
- 70. Nouns in ĕs (e short) form the genitive in ĭtis: mīles, milītis, soldier.

EXCEPTIONS .- The following form it in

- 1. ĕtis:—interpres, interpreter; seges, crop; teges, covering.
- 2. ĭdis: obses, hostage; praeses, president.

IS.

71. Nouns in is form the genitive in is: avis, avis, bird; canis, canis, dog.

¹ Greek nouns sometimes have ados for adis.

EXCEPTIONS.—The following form it in

- ĕris:—cĭnis, cinĕris, ashes; cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; võmis, ploughshare.
- idis:—căpis, cup; cassis, helmet; cuspis, spear; lăpis, stone; promulsis, antepast, and a few Greek words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes ibis and tigris.
- 3. ĭnis: -pollis, flour; sanguis, blood.
- 4. iris: -glis, glīris, dormouse.
- 5. issis :- sēmis, semissis, half an as.
- 6. Itis :- lis, strife; Dis, Quiris, Samnis.

OS.

72. Nouns in **os** form the genitive in **ōris**: flos, flōris, flower; mos, mōris, custom.

EXCEPTIONS.—The following form it in

- ōtis:—cos, côtis, whetstone; dos, dowry; nepos, grandson; sacerdos, priest; and a few Greek words: rhinoceros, the rhinoceros.
- 2. ōdis:—custos, custodis, guardian.
- 3. ōis :- few masc. Greek nouns : hēros, hero ; Mīnos, Tros.
- 4. ŏris: -arbos for arbor, tree.
- 5. ossis:—os, ossis, bone (os, mouth, regular: ōris).
- 6. ŏvis:—bos, bŏvis, ox.

US.

73. Nouns in us form the genitive in eris or oris: latus, lateris, side; corpus, corporis, body.

- 1. Genitive in ĕris.—Acus, foedus, fūnus, gĕnus, glŏmus, lătus, mūnus, ŏlus, ŏnus, ŏpus, pondus, rūdus, seĕlus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, Vĕnus, viscus, vulnus.
- 2. Genitive in čris.—Corpus, d
čcus, dedčcus, facĭnus, fēnus, frīgus, l
ĕpus, lītus, nĕmus, pectus, pĕcus, pĕnus, pignus, stercus, tempus, tergus.

EXCEPTIONS.—The following form it in

- uris:—(1) ūris: crus, leg; jus, right; jus, soup; mus, mouse; pus, pus; rus, country; tus (thus), incense; tellus, earth.
 —(2) ŭris: Līgus, Ligūris, Ligurian.
- 2. ūtis:—juventus, youth; sălus, safety; senectus, old age; servitus, servitude; virtus, virtue.
- udis:—(1) ūdis: incus, anvil; pălus, marsh; subscus, dovetail.—
 (2) ŭdis: pčcus, pecădis, a head of cattle.—(3) audis: fraus, fraudis, fraud; laus, praise.

¹ Greek nouns sometimes have idos or even ios for idis; Salamis has Salamīnis: Simois, Simoentis.

- 4. uis: -grus, gruis, crane; sus, swine.
- 5. untis :- a few Greek names of places : Trapezus, untis.
- 6. ŏdis:—Greek compounds in pus: trĭpus, tripŏdis, tripod.
- eos:—Greek nouns in eus, when of this declension: Thēseus, Theseos.

YS.

74. Nouns in ys form the genitive in yis, yos, ys: Othrys, Othryos.

These are of Greek origin; a few of them have ydis: chlamys, chlamydis, cloak.

IV. Words ending in S preceded by a Consonant.

Genitive in is or tis.

BS, MS, PS.

75. Nouns in **bs, ms,** and **ps** form the genitive by changing **s** into **is**: *urbs*, *urbis*, city; *hiems*, *hiēmis*, winter; *daps*, *dāpis*, food.

Exceptions.—The following form it in

- ipis:—nouns in ceps from capio: princeps, principis, prince. Also ädeps, fat; forceps, forceps.
- 2. ŭpis: -auceps, aucupis, fowler.
- 3. ÿphis:—gryps, gryphis, griffin.

LS, NS, RS.

76. Nouns in **ls, ns,** and **rs** form the genitive by changing **s** into **tis**: puls, pultis, broth; mens, mentis, mind; ars, artis, art.

EXCEPTIONS .- The following form it in

dis:-frons, frondis, leaf; glans, acorn; juglans, walnut.

V. Words ending in X.—Genitive in cis or gis.

AX.

77. Nouns in **ax** form the genitive in **ācis**: pax, pācis, peace.

EXCEPTIONS .- The following form it in

- ăcis:—fax, făcis, toreh; and a few Greek nouns.
- 2. actis: —few Greek names of men: Astyanax.

EX.

78. Nouns in **ex** form the genitive in ĭcis: jūdex, judīcis, judge.

EXCEPTION. -The following form it in

- ecis:—(1) ēcis: ālex, pickle; vervex, wether.—(2) ĕcis: nex, murder; fenīsex, mower.—(3) aecis: faex, faecis, lees.
- egis:—(1) ēgis: lex, law; rex, king, and their compounds.—(2)
 ĕgis: grex, flock; aquilex, water-inspector.
- 3. ectilis: -supellex, supellectilis, furniture.
- 4. ĭgis:-rēmex, remīgis, rower.
- 5. is :-sĕnex, sĕnis, old man.

IX.

79. Nouns in ix form the genitive in icis: rādix, radicis, root.

EXCEPTIONS.—The following form it in

- ĭcis:—appendix, appendix; călix, cup; fornix, arch; pix, pitch; sălix, willow, and a few others.
- igis:—strix, screech owl; and a few Gallic names: Dumnörix, Orgetörix.
- 3. ĭvis:—nix, nĭvis, snow.

ox.

80. Nouns in **ox** are: vox, vocis, voice; nox, noctis, night.

There are also a few national names which form the genitive in **Sois** or **Sgis**: Cappādox, Cappadōxis; Allōbrox, Allobrögis.

UX.

81. Nouns in **ux** form the genitive in **ŭcis**: dux, dŭcis, leader.

Exceptions.—The following form it in

- ucis:—(1) ūcis: lux, lūcis, light; Pollux.—(2). aucis: faux (def.), faucis, throat.
- 2. ugis:—(1) ūgis: frux, frūqis, fruit.—(2) ŭgis: conjux, conjŭgis, spouse.

YX.

82. Nouns in **yx** are from the Greek, and form the genitive variously: $Er\check{y}x$, $Er\check{y}cis$, Eryx; bombyx, $bomb\check{y}cis$, silkworm; Styx, $St\check{y}gis$, Styx; coccyx, $cocc\check{y}gis$, cuckoo; $\check{o}nyx$, $on\check{y}chis$, onyx.

X PRECEDED BY A CONSONANT.

83. Nouns in **x** preceded by a consonant change **x** into **cis**: arx, arcis, citadel.

Exceptions.—A few Greek nouns form it in gis; phălanz, phalangis, phalanx.

Dative Singular.

84. Ending:—ī: urbs, urbī, city. But The old dative in e also occurs: aere, for aeri.

Accusative Singular.

85. Ending:—like Nom., ĕm, ĭm.

I. Ending:—like nom. in neuters: mare, mare, sea.

II. Ending:—ĕm, in most masculines and feminines: urbs, urbĕm.

III. Ending: -- im, in the following:

- 1. In names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the genitive: Tiběris, Tiběrim; Hispālis, Hispālim.
- 2. In amussis, rule; būris, plough-tail; rāvis, hoarseness; sĭtis, thirst; tussis, cough; vis, force.

3. Generally in: febris, pelvis, puppis, restis, securis, turris; some-

times in: clāvis, messis, nāvis, pars.

4. In Greek nouns in is, G. is, and in many in is, G. idos or idis, though the latter have also the regular idem: poesis, poesim; Agis (Agidis), Agim or Agidem. For Greek nouns see also 93.

Vocative Singular.

86. Ending:—like nominative; rex, rex. But Some Greek nouns drop s: Pallas, Palla; Orpheus, Orpheu. See 94.

Ablative Singular.

87. Ending:—ĕ, ī.

I. Ending: - ĕ, in most nouns; urbis, urbe, city.

II. Ending:--ī, in the following classes of words:

 In neuters in e, al, and ar: sedīle, sedīli, seat; veetigal, veetigāli, tax; calcar, calcāri, spur. But

The following have e:—(1) Names of towns in e; Praeneste.—(2) Nouns in al and ar with a short in Gen.: sal, sale, salt; nectar, nectare, nectar.—(3) Far, farre, corn.—(4) Generally rete, net, and in poetry sometimes mare.

In adjectives in er and is used substantively: September, Septembri, September; familiāris, familiāri, friend. But

Adjectives used as proper names, and juvěnis, youth, have e; Juvenātis, Juvenāle, Juvenal.

¹ Names of months are adjectives used substantively, with mensis, month, understood.

- In nouns in is with im in the accusative (85): Tiběris, Tiběrim,
 Tiběri; sitis, sitim, siti.
- III. Ending: e or i; in nouns with em or im in the Acc.: turris, turrem or turrim, turre or turri. But
- 1. Restis, Acc. restim, rarely em, has reste; while navis, navem, rarely im, has generally navi.

2. Greek nouns in is, G. idis, generally have e, even though the Acc.

may have im: Păris, Acc. Parim or Paridem, Abl. Paride.

3. Some other nouns occasionally form the Abl. in i.—(1) several in is: annis, anguis, āris, bilis, civis, classis, collis, ignis, orbis, postis, rātis, unguis, and a few others.—(2) some names of towns, to denote the place in which: Carthagīni, at Carthage; Tibūri, at Tibur.—(3) imber, rus, sors, supellex, vesper, and a few others.

Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural.

88. Ending:—ēs, ă, iă.

- I. Ending: ēs in masculines and feminines: urbs, urbes.
- II. Ending: ă, iă in neuters:
- 1. a in most neuters: carmen, carmina.
- 2. ia in neuters which admit i in the ablative (87. II.): mare, maria.

III. RARE ENDINGS are

1. The ancient endings—ēis and is in the Acc. Plur. of masculines and feminines with ium in the Gen.: cīvēīs, civīs, for cives.

2. The Greek endings-es, as, is, e. See 95 and 98.

3. Vis, force, has Plur .: vīres, virium, virībus, vires, vires, virībus.

Genitive Plural.

89. Ending:—um, ium.

- I. Ending:—um in most nouns: leo, leonum.
- II. Ending:—ium in the following classes of words:
- 1. In neuters with ia in the plural, i. e., those in e, al, and ar (al and ar with ā in Gen.); mare, maria, marium; animal, animālia, animalium, animal.
- 2. In most nouns of more than one syllable in ns and rs: 1 cliens, clientium, client; cohors, cohortium, cohort.
 - 3. In many nouns not increasing in the genitive:
- 1) Most nouns in es and is not increasing: 2 nubes, nubium; avis, avium.
- Căro, flesh; imber, storm; linter, boat; uter, leathern sack; venter, belly; and generally Insüber, Insubrian.

¹ Some of these often have um in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as parent, parent, generally has.

² But cănis, juvčnis, strues, vătes, have um; ăpis, mensis, sēdes, volueris, um or ium; compes, ium.

- 4. In monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant 1 and in a few in s and x preceded by a rowel: 2 urbs, urbium, city; arx, arcium, citadel; nox, noctium, night.
 - 5. In many nouns in as and is (Plur. ātes and ītes). Thus
 - 1) In names of nations: Arpīnas, Arpinatium; Samnis, Samnitium.
- 2) In Optimates and Penates, and occasionally in other nouns in as: civitatium, sometimes civitatium.
- III. RARE ENDINGS.—Bos has boum: a few Greek words (especially titles of books) on: Metamorphoses, Metamorphoseon.
 - IV. WANTING .- The Gen. Plur. is often wanting in monosyllables.

Dative and Ablative Plural.

90. Ending:—ĭbŭs: urbs, urbšbus.

RARE ENDINGS are:

- is or ibus—in neuters in a: poēma; D. and A., poemătis, or poematibus, poem.
- ubus—in bos, būbus (rare bōbus for bovībus), ox; sus, sūbus for suībus, swine.
- si, sin—in Greek words. See 97.

GREEK PECULIARITIES.

91. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek, and some are entirely indeclinable.

Greek Genitive Singular.

- 92. Ending:—sometimes os or i (rare) for is: Daphnis, Daphnidos for Daphnidis; Xerxes, Xerxi for Xerxis.
- 1. Ending:—os. (1) Many nouns in as and is have ados and idos for adis and idis: Pallas, Pallados.—(2) Those in ys may have yos or ys: Tethys, Tethyos.—(3) Those in eus have cos: Orphcus, Orphcos.—(4) Pan has Panos.
- Ending:—i. Proper names in es, Gen. is, sometimes have i for is: Achilles, Achilli.
- 3. Ending:—us. Greek feminines in o, čeho, Dido, Sappho, have regularly us in the Gen. and the Greek ending o in the other cases, rarely the Latin öni, önem, öne; Dīdo, Didus, Dido.

Greek Accusative Singular.

- 93. Ending:—often a: sometimes im, in; sometimes en for cm: Pericles, Periclea; poësis, poësim, or poesin, poem; Xerxes, Xerxen.
- THE ENDING a is used—(1) by prose writers in proper names and in aër and aether,—(2) by the poets both in proper and in common nouns.

1 Except (ops) opis and the Greek nouns, gryps, lynx, sphynx.

² Namely, faux, glis, lis, mas, nix, nox, os (ossis), vis, generally fraus and mus.

2. The Ending im or in is used in Greek nouns in is, Gen. is, and sometimes in a few in is, Gen. idis: poēsis, poēsim, poēsin; Păris (Paridis), Paridem, Parim, Parin.

3. THE ENDING en is often used in proper names in es, Gen. is, and sometimes in a few in es, Gen. ētis: Aeschines, Aeschinen; Thales, Tha-

lētem or Thalen.

4. THE EXDING ym or yn.—Greek nouns in ys have ym or yn: Othrys, Othrym or Othryn.

Greek Vocative Singular.

94. Ending sometimes drops s: Orpheus, Orpheu. See 86.

1. S is dropped,—(1) regularly in nouns in eus and ys, together with proper names in as, Gen. antis: Perseus, Perseu; Cotys, Coty; Atlas, Atla,—(2) generally in nouns in is and sometimes in proper nouns in es: Daphnis, Daphni; Socrates, Socrates, or Socrate.

2. Proper names in es shorten the ending to is, when s is retained:

Socrătes, Socrătes.

Greek Nominative and Vocative Plural.

- 95. Ending:—sometimes **ĕs** for $\bar{c}s$, especially in poetry: Arcădēs for Arcădēs.
- 1. THE ENDING e is used in a few neuters in os: mēlos, mele, song; these neuters are used only in the Nom. and Acc. Tempe, the vale Tempe, is plural.

2. The Ending is for es occurs in a few names of cities: Sardis for

Sardes.

Greek Genitive Plural.

96. Ending:—on: only in a few words, almost exclusively titles of books: Metamorphōses (title of a poem), Metamorphoscon.

Greek Dative and Ablative Plural.

97. Ending:—si, before vowels sin, poetic: Troudes, Trousin.

Greek Accusative Plural.

98. Ending:—as: Macedones, Macedonas.

1. The Ending e is used in a few neuters in os: melos, mele; Tempe. See 95. 1.

2. THE ENDING is occurs in a few names of cities: Sardis for Sardes.

GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

99. The Gender of nouns of this declension, when not determined by the general rules (35), may be ascertained from their endings, as follows:

I. MASCULINE ENDINGS.

o, or, os, er, es increasing in the genitive.

0

100. Nouns in o are masculine: sermo, discourse. Exceptions.—Feminine, viz.:

1. Nouns in o, Gen. inis (i. e., most nouns in do and go, 61. 2), except cardo, ordo, turbo, masc., cupido and margo, masc. or fem.

2. Căro, flesh, and the Greek Argo, ēcho, an echo.

Abstract and collective nouns in io: ratio, reason; concio, an assembly; except numeral nouns in io, which (except unio) are masc.; ternio, quaternio.

OR.

101. Nouns in or are masculine: dölor, pain. Exceptions.

1. Feminine: -arbor, tree.

2. Neuter :-- ădor, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.

os.

102. Nouns in **os** are masculine: *mos*, custom. EXCEPTIONS.

1. Feminine: -arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; cos, dawn.

ER.

103. Nouns in **er** are masculine: agger, mound. Exceptions.

1. Feminine: -linter, boat (sometimes masc.).

Neuter:—(1) cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder; ver, spring; verber, scourge,—(2) botanical names in er, Gen. ĕris: ācer, maple tree; papāver, poppy; piper, pepper.

ES INCREASING IN GENITIVE.

104. Nouns in es increasing in the genitive are masculine: pes, genitive pedis, foot.

EXCEPTIONS.

 Feminine:—compes, fetter; merces, reward; merges, sheaf; quies, rest (with its compounds); siges, crop; tiges, mat; sometimes also ales, bird, and quadripes, quadruped.

2. Neuter: -aes, copper.

II. FEMININE ENDINGS.

as, is, ys, x, es not increasing in genitive, s preceded by a consonant.

AS.

105. Nouns in as are feminine: aetas, age. Exceptions.

- Masculine:—as, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as,
 G. antis, as adămas, adamant.
- 2. Neuter: -vas, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, G. atis, as erysipelas.

IS.

106. Nouns in is are feminine: nāvis, ship.

EXCEPTIONS.—Masculine:

- Nouns in ālis, ollis, cis, mis, nis, guis, quis: natālis, birthday; collis, hill; fascis, bundle; vēmis, ploughshare; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood; torquis, collar. But a few with these endings are occasionally feminine: aquālis, canālis, cănis, clūnis, amnis, cinis, finis, anguis, torquis.
- 2. Axis, axle; fustis, club; pulvis, dust; būris, plough-tail; glis, dormouse; scrobis (f.), ditch; callis (f.), path; 1 lăpis, stone; sentis, brier; cassis, net; mensis, month; tigris (f.), tiger; caulis, stem; orbis, circle; torris, brand; corbis (f.), basket; postis, post; rectis, lever.2 ensis, sword;
- 3. Compounds of as (a coin): sēmis, decussis. Also Lucretilis, mānes (pl.).

YS.

107. Nouns in ys are feminine: chlāmys, cloak. Excertions.—Masculine:—names of mountains, Othrys.

T

108. Nouns in x are feminine: pax, peace.

EXCEPTIONS .- Masculine :

- 1. Greek masculines: corax, raven; thorax, cuirass.
- Nouns in ex and unx; except the six feminines: faex, forfex, lex, nex, (prex), supellex, and such as are fem. by signification.
 II.

¹ The examples marked (f.) are sometimes feminine. Corbis and tigris are often feminine.

² For nouns in is masculine by signification, see 35. L

- Four in ix: ealix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; earix
 (f.), swollen vein.
- 4. One in ux: trādux, vine-layer.
- 5. Names of mountains in yx, and a few other words in yx.
- 6. Sometimes: calx, heel; calx, lime; lynx, a lynx.

ES NOT INCREASING IN GENITIVE.

109. Nouns in **es** not increasing in genitive are feminine: nūbes, cloud.

EXCEPTIONS.

- 1. Masculine: -acinăces: sometimes palumbes and vepres.
- 2. Neuter: a few rare Greek nouns: cacoethes, hippomanes

S PRECEDED BY A CONSONANT.

110. Nouns in s preceded by a consonant are feminine: urbs, city.

EXCEPTIONS. - Maseuline:

- Dens, tooth, fons, fountain, mons, mountain, pons, bridge; generally ădeps, fat, and rădens, cable.
- Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masc.
 noun understood,—(1) oriens, occidens (sol), east, west,—(2) confluens, torrens (amnis), confluence, torrent,—(3) bidens, tridens (raster), two-pronged hoe, trident,—(4) sextans, quadrans (as), parts of an as.
- Chălybs, steel, hydrops, dropsy, and a few Greek names of animals: ĕpops, gryps, seps (f.).
- Sometimes: forceps, forceps; serpens, serpent; stirps, stock.
 Animans, animal, originally participle, is masc., fem., or neuter.

III. NEUTER ENDINGS.

a, e, i, y, c, l, n, t, ar, ur, us.

A, E, I, Y, C, T, AR.

111. Nouns in a, e, i, y, c, t, ar are neuter: poēma, poem; māre, sea; lac, milk; cāput, head.

L.

112. Nouns in 1 are neuter: animal, animal.

EXCEPTIONS.—Masculine:—māgil, mullet; sal (also neuter in singular), salt; sol, sun.

N.

113. Nouns in **n** are neuter: carmen, song.

EXCEPTIONS.

- Masculine: pecten, comb; ren, kidney; lien, spleen; and Greek
 masculines in an, en, in, on: pacan, paean; cănon, rule.
- Femininc:—aēdon, nightingale; alcyon (halcyon), kingfisher; ācon, image; sindon, muslin.

UR.

114. Nouns in ur are neuter: fulgur, lightning.

EXCEPTIONS.—Masculine:—furfur, bran; turtur, turtledove; vultur, vulture.

US.

115. Nouns in us are neuter: corpus, body.

EXCEPTIONS.

- Masculine: —lépus, hare; mus, mouse; Greek nouns in pus and a few others: tripus, tripod.
- Feminine:—tellus, carth; fraus, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in us, Gen. utfs or udis: virtus, virtue; pălus, marsh.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

116. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us,—masculine; u,—neuter.

They are declined as follows:

Fructus, fruit.	Cornu, horn. Case-		e-Endings.		
	SINGULAR.				
N. fruct ŭs	cornū	ŭs	ū		
G. fruct ūs	corn ūs	ūs '	ūs		
D. fructuī	corn ū	uī	ū		
A. fruct um	corn ū	ŭm	ū		
V. fructŭs	corn ū	ŭs	ū		
A. fruct ü	corn ū	ū	ū		
	PLURAL.				
N. fructūs	cornuă	ūs	uă		
G. fructuum	cornumen	uŭm	uŭm		
D. fruct ĭbŭs	cornĭbŭs	ibŭs (ŭbŭs)	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs)		
A. fructūs	cornuă	ūs	uă		
V. fructūs	cornuă	ūs	uă		
A. fructIbus.	cornĭbŭs.	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs).	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs).		

 Case-Endings.—Nouns of this declension are declined with the case-endings presented in the above table.

- 2. Examples for Practice.—Cantus, song; currus, chariot; cursus, course; versus, verse; gěnu, knee.
- 3. Modification of Third Declension.—The fourth declension is but a modification of the third, produced by contraction: thus fructus, in the uncontracted form, was declined like grus, gruis, of Decl. III.: N. fructus, G. fructuis = fructus; D. fructui, A. fructuem = fructum, V. fructus; A. fructue = fructu: Plur. N. fructues = fructus, etc.
 - 4. Irregular Case-Endings.—The following occur:
 - 1) Ubus for ibus, used regularly in the Dat. and Abl. Plur. of
- Acus, needle; arcus, bow; artus, joint; lăcus, lake; partus, birth; pecu, cattle; quercus, oak; spēcus, den; trībus, tribe; vēru, spit: occasionally in a few other words, as portus, sinus, and tonitrus.
 - 2) Uis, the uncontracted form for us, in the Gen.: fructuis for fructus.
 - 3) U for ui, in the Dat. by contraction: equitatu for equitatui, cavalry.
- 117. Second and Fourth Declensions.—Some nouns are partly of this declension and partly of the second.
 - 1. Domus, house, declined as follows:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
N. domŭs	domūs
G. domūs, domī	domuňm, domorům
D. domuī (domō)	domibŭs
 domŭm ΄ 	domās, domūs
V. domŭs	dom ūs
A. domō (domū)	domibŭs.

In this word there is generally a difference of meaning between the forms of the second Decl. and those of the fourth; thus, G. domus, of a house; domi, at home: A. Pl. domus, houses; domos, often, homeward; to homes.

2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, fīcus, laurus, pīnus, though generally of Decl. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth which end in us and u: N. laurus, G. laurus, D. lauro, A. laurum, V. laurus, A. lauru, &c. So also colus, distaff.

3. A few nouns, especially senātus and tumultus, though regularly of Deel. IV., sometimes take the genitive ending i of the second: senāti, tumulti.

118. GENDER IN FOURTH DECLENSION.

Masculine ending: us. Neuter ending: u.

EXCEPTIONS.

1. Feminine: -(1) ăcus, needle; cŏlus, distaff; dŏmus, house; mănus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe,—(2) īdus, ides; Quinquatrus, feast of Minerva; generally penus, store, when of this decl.; rarely specus, den,—(3) a few nouns Fem. by signification (35. II.): nŭrus, daughter-in-law; fīcus, fig tree.

2. Neuter :- sccus (sexus), sex; rarely, specus, den.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

119. Nouns of the fifth declension end in **es**,—feminine, and are declined as follows:

Dies, day.	Res, thing.	Case-Endings
	SINGULAR.	
N . di $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}$	rēs	ēs
G . di $f e}$ 1	r ĕī	eī
D. di ēī	r ĕ ī	eī
A. di ĕm	rěm	ĕm
V. di ēs	rēs	ēs
A. diē	rē	ē
	PLURAL.	
N. di ēs	rēs	ēs
G. di ērŭm	rērŭm	ērŭm
D. di ēbŭs	rēbŭs	ēbŭs
A. di ēs	r ēs	ēs
V. di ēs	r ēs	ēs
A. diēbŭs.	rēbŭs.	ēbŭs.

1. Case-Endings.—Nouns of this declension are declined with the case-endings presented in the above table.

E in ei is generally short when preceded by a consonant, otherwise long.

- 2. Examples for Practice.—Acies, battle array; effigies, effigy; facies, face; series, series; species, form; spes, hope.
- 3. Modification of Third Declension.—The fifth declension, like the fourth, seems to be a modification of the third. It is produced by contraction $(ees = \bar{e}s: \epsilon \bar{i}bus = \bar{e}bus)$, except in the genitive, where $e\bar{i}$ comes from $e\bar{i}s$, by dropping s, and $\bar{e}rum$ from eum, by inserting r.

4. Irregular Endings:—ē or ī for ei in the Gen. and Dat.: acie for aciei; pernicii for perniciēi.

5. Defective.—Nouns of this declension, except dies and res, want the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur., and many admit no plural whatever.

120. Gender in Fifth Declension.

Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine.

EXCEPTIONS.—Masculine:—dies, day, and meridies, midday, though dies is sometimes feminine in the singular.

Also Fem. when it means fig.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

121. Case-Endings of Latin nouns.

SINGULAR.

Dec. I.	Dec.	II.	Dec.	III.	Dec.	IV.	D. V.
Fem.	Masc.		M. & F.		Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N. ă	ŭs 2	ŭm	s (es, is)3—	ĕ —	ŭs	ū	ēs
G. ae	ī	ī	ĭs	ĭs	ūs	ūs	ěī ěī
D. ae	ō	ō	ī	ī	uī	ũ	
A. ăm	ŭm	ŭm	ěm (ĭm)	like nom.	ŭm	ū	ĕm
V. ă	ĕ —	ŭm	like nom.	like nom.	ŭs	ū	ēs
A. ā	ō	ō	ě (ĩ)	ě (ī)	ļū.	ū	ē

PLURAL.

N.	ae	Ī	ă	ēs	ă (iă)	ūs	uă	ēs
G.	ārŭm	ōrŭm	ōrŭm	ŭm (iŭm)	ŭm (iŭm)			ērŭm
D.	īs	īs	īs	ĭbŭs`	ĭbŭs`	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs)	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs)	ēbŭs
A.	ās	ōs	ă	ēs	ă (iă)	ūs	uă	ēs
V.	ae	ī	ă	ēs		ūs		ēs
A.	īs.	īs	īs.	ĭbŭs.	ĭbùs.	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs)	ĭbŭs (ŭbŭs).	ēbŭs.

- 122. By a close analysis it will be found,
- 1. That the five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of declension.
- 2. That these varieties have been produced by the union of different final letters in the various stems, with one general system of endings.
 - 123. According to this analysis,
- 1. The stems in the five declensions end in the following letters:

I.	II.	III.	IV.	_ V.
a,	0,	consonant,	u,	e.
		(rarely i).		

2. The general case-endings are as follows: 4

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ This table presents the endings of all nouns in the Latin language, except a few derived from the Greek.

² The dash denotes that the case-ending is sometimes wanting: er and ir in Decl. It., it will be remembered, are not case-endings, but parts of the stem (45.1).

³ The inclosed endings are less common than the others.

⁴ In this table observe,

¹⁾ That different endings characteristic of different genders may be found in one and the same declension.

²⁾ That a slight difference of declension is however apparent in the double forms in \$\bar{s}, \bar{t}; \bar{e}s, \bar{z}; \disk, \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^* \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^* \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^* \tau^*, \tau^*, \tau^* \tau^*, \tau^*,

SI	NG	U	L	A	R.

Masc. and Fem.		Neut.
N. s —		ĕ, m —
G. is, i		ĭs, ī
D. i		ī
A. ĕm, m		like nom.
V. like nom.		
A. ĕ (ī)		ĕ (ī)
* /	PLURAL.	` '
N. ēs, 1		ă (iă)
G. ŭm, rŭm		ŭm, rŭm
D. ĭbŭs, īs		ĭbŭs, īs
A. ēs		like nom.
V. like nom.		"
A. ībus, īs.		ibŭs, īs.

3. The manner in which these endings unite with the different stems so as to produce the five declensions may be seen in the following

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF DECLENSIONS.

I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Mensa.	Servo.	Reg.	Fructu.	Re.
		GULAR.	1	
$N.\begin{cases} mensa-\\ mensă \end{cases}$	<i>servo-s</i> servŭs	reg-s	fructu-s fructŭs	re-s rēs
$G.\begin{cases} mensa-i \\ mensae \end{cases}$	servo-i	<i>reg-is</i>	fructu-is	re-i(s)
	servī	rēgĭs	fructūs	rĕī
$D. \left\{ egin{array}{l} mensa-i \ ext{mensae} \end{array} ight.$	<i>servo-i</i> servō	$rac{reg ext{-}i}{ ext{reg} ext{ iny }}$	fructu-i fructuī	re-i rĕī
$A. \begin{cases} mensa-m \\ mensăm \end{cases}$	<i>servo-m</i>	<i>reg-em</i>	fructu-(e)m	re-(e)m
	servŭm	regĕm	fructŭm	rĕm
$V.\begin{cases} mensa-\\ mensă \end{cases}$	<i>servo-e</i> ¹ servě	reg-s	<i>fructu-s</i> fructŭs	re-s rēs
$A.\left\{egin{array}{l} mensa-e \ ext{mens} \ ext{in} \end{array} ight.$	servo-e	<i>reg-e</i>	<i>fructu-e</i>	rc-e
	servō	regĕ	fructū	rē
	PL	URAL.		
$N. \left\{ egin{array}{l} mensa-i \ ext{mensae} \end{array} ight.$	servo-i	reg-es	fructu-es	<i>re-es</i>
	servī	regēs	fructūs	rēs
$G.\left\{ egin{array}{l} mensa-um \ ext{mens} ext{"iring} \end{array} ight.$	servo-um	<i>reg-ит</i>	fruetu-um	re-um
	servōrŭm	regйm	fruetuŭm	rērŭm
$D. \left\{ egin{array}{l} mensa-is \ ext{mensis} \end{array} ight.$	servo-is	<i>reg-ibus</i>	fructu-ibus	<i>re-ibus</i>
	servīs	regibŭs	fructĭbŭs	rēbŭs
$A.\left\{ egin{array}{l} mensa-es \ ext{mens} ar{ ext{as}} \end{array} ight.$	servo-es	reg-cs	fructu-cs	re-es
	servõs	regēs	fructūs	rēs
$V. \left\{ egin{array}{l} mensa-i \\ ext{mensae} \end{array} ight.$	servo-i	reg-cs	fructu-cs	re-es
	servī	regēs	fructūs	rēs
$A. \begin{cases} mensa-is \\ mensis. \end{cases}$	servo-is	reg-ibus	fructu-ibus	<i>re-ibus</i>
	servīs.	regĭbŭs.	fructībŭs.	rēbŭs.

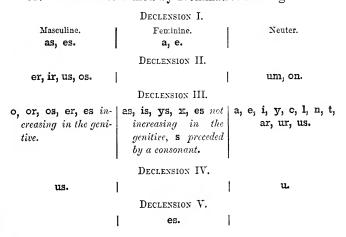
¹ Nouns in us of Dec. II. have e instead of s.

124. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER.

I. Gender independent of ending. Common to all declensions.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Nenter.	
Names of Males, of	Names of Females, of	INDECLINABLE NOUNS,	
RIVERS, WINDS, and	Countries, Towns,	and Words and	
MONTHS.	Islands, and Trees.	CLAUSES used as In-	
		declinable Nouns.	

II. Gender determined by Nominative Ending.²



DECLENSION OF COMPOUND AND IRREGULAR NOUNS.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

125. Compounds present in general no peculiarities of declension. But

1. If two nominatives unite, they are both declined: $respublica = res \ publica$, republic, the public thing; jusjurandum = jusjurandum, oath.

2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: paterfamilias = păter familias (42. 3), or păter familiae, the father of a family.

¹ For exceptions, see 36.

² For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

126. Paradigms.

N. respublica G. rěīpublicae

A. rēbuspublicīs.

SINGULAR. | jusjurandŭm

jūrisjurandī

păterfamilias

patrisfamilias

patribusfamilias.

D. rěipublícae A. rempublícăm V. respublícă A. rēpublícā	jurijurandō jusjurandŭm jusjurandŭm jurejurandō	patrīfamilias patremfamilias paterfamilias patrēfamilias
	PLURAL.	
N. respublicae G. rērumpublicārum D. rēbuspublicīs	jurajurandă	patresfamilias patrumfamilias patrībusfamilias
A. respublicas V. respublicae	jurajurandă	patresfamilias

- 1. The parts which compose these and similar words are often and perhaps more correctly written separately: res publica; păter familias or familiae.
 - 2. The parts of respublica are res of the 5th Decl. and publica of the 1st.
- The parts of jusjurandum are jus of the 3d Decl. and jurandum of the
 Jusjurandum wants the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.
- 4. The parts of paterfamilias are pater of the 3d Decl. and familias (42. 3), the old Gen. of familia, of the 1st. Sometimes, though rarely, the Genfamiliārum is used in the plural: patresfamiliārum for patres familias.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

- 127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:
- I. Indeclinable Nouns have but one form for all cases.
- II. Defective Nouns want certain parts.
- III. HETEROCLITES (heteroclita') are partly of one declension and partly of another.
- IV. Heterogeneous Nouns (heterogenea²) are partly of one gender and partly of another.

I. INDECLINABLE NOUNS.

- 128. The Latin has but few indeclinable nouns.
- 1. The principal examples are:
- 1) Fas, right; něfas, wrong; instar, equality; māne, morning; nihil, nothing; pondo, pound; sěcus, sex.
 - 2) The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, alpha, beta, etc.
 - 3) Foreign words: Jacob, Illeberri; though these are often declined:
 - 1 From ετερος, another, and κλίσις, inflection, i. e., of different declensions.
 - ² From έτεροs, another, and γένος, gender, i. e., of different genders.

Jacobus, Jacobi; Illeberris, Illeberri. Jesus has Jesum in the accusative and Jesu in the other cases.

2. Some indeclinable nouns are also defective: māne wants the Gen. and Dat.; fas and něfas, the Gen., Dat., and Abl.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

129. Nouns may be defective in Number, in Case, or in both Number and Case.

I. Nouns defective in Number.

- 130. Plural wanting.—Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: $R\ddot{o}ma$, Rome; justitia, justice; aurum, gold.
 - 1. The principal nouns of this class are:
 - 1) Proper names (except those used only in the plural): Cicero, Roma.
 - 2) Abstract Nouns: fides, faith; justitia, justice.
 - 3) Names of materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron.
- 4) A few others: meridies, midday; specimen, example; supellex, furniture; ver, spring; vespera, evening, etc.
- 2. Proper names admit the plural to designate families, classes; names of materials, to designate pieces of the material or articles made of it; and abstract nouns, to designate instances, or kinds, of the quality; Scipiones, the Scipios; aera, vessels of copper; avaritiae, instances of avarice; odia, hatreds.

In the poets, the plur. of abstracts occurs in the sense of the sing.

131. Singular wanting.—Many nouns want the singular.

- 1. The most important of these are:
- Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: majūres, forefathers; postēri, descendants; gemīni, twins; libēri, children, etc.
- 2) Many names of cities: Athēnae, Athens; Thēbae, Thebes; Delphi, Delphi; Argi, Argos, though the Sing. Argos occurs in Nom. and Acc.
 - 3) Many names of festivals: Bacchanalia, Olympia, Saturnalia.
 - 4) Many names not included in these classes. Such are:

Arma, arms; divitiae, riches; exsequiae, funeral rites; exuviae, spoils; idus, ides; indutiae, truce; insidiae, ambuscade; mānes, shades of the dead; mānee, threats; moenia, walls; munia, duties; nuptiae, nuptials; reliquiae, remains.

- An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by unus ex with the plural: unus ex liberis, one of the children, or a child.
- 3. The plural in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as ancient cities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.
- 132. Plural with Change of Meaning.—Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural: Thus

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Aedes, temple; Aqua, water; aedes, (1) temples, (2) a house.¹
aquae, (1) waters, (2) mineral springs.

¹ Aedes and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

Auxilium, help; Bouum, a good thing, blessing; Carcer, prison, barrier; Castrum, castle, hut; Comitium, name of a part of the Roman forum; Copia, plenty, force; Facultas, ability; Finis, end; Fortuna, fortune; Gratia, gratitude, favor; Hortus, garden; Impedimentum, hindrance;

Littera, letter of alphabet;

Lūdus, play, sport; Mos, custom, Natális (dies), birth-day; Opera, work, service; Pars, part; Rostrum, beak of ship:

Sal, salt;

auxilia, auxiliaries. bona, riches, goods. carceres, barriers of a race-course. castra, camp. comitia, the assembly held in the comitium. copiae, (1) stores, (2) troops. facultates, wealth, means. fines, borders, territory. fortunae, possessions, wealth. gratiae, thanks. horti, (1) gardens, (2) pleasure grounds. impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) baglitterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) epis-

tle, writing, letters, literature. ludi, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle. mores, manners, character. natales, pedigree, parentage. operae, workmen. partes, (1) parts, (2) a party. rostra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tri-bune in Rome (adorned with beaks). sales, witty sayings.

II. Nouns defective in Case.

133. Some nouns are defective in case.

1. Some want the nominative, dative, and vocative singular: (Ops), ŏpis, help; (vix or vicis), vicis, change.

2. Some want the nominative and vocative singular: (Daps), dăpis, food; (ditio), ditionis, sway; (frux), frugis, fruit; (internecio), internecionis, destruction; (pollis), pollinis, flour.

3. Some want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural: thus most

nouns of the fifth declension. Sec 119. 5.

So also many neuters: far, fel, mel, pus, rus, tus; especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases in the singular also: epos, melos.

4. Some want the genitive plural: thus many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nex, pax, pix; cor, cos, ros; sal, sol, lux.

III. Nouns defective in Number and Case.

134. Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other: fors, chance, has only fors and forte; lues, pestilence, has lues, luem, lue. Many verbal nouns in u have only the ablative singular: jussu, by order; mandātu, by command; rogātu, by request.

III. HETEROCLITES.—Two CLASSES.

I. Heteroclites with one form in the nominative singular.

II. Heteroclites with different forms in the nominative singular.

Class First.

- 135. Of Declensions II. and IV. are a few nouns in us. See 117.
 - 136. Of Declessions II. and III. are
- 1. Jugerum, an acre; regularly of the second Decl., except in the Gen. Plur., which is jugerum, according to the third. Other forms of the third are rare.

2. Vas, a vessel; of the third Decl. in the Sing., and of the second in

the Plur.: vas, vāsis; plural, vāsa, vasōrum.
3. Plural names of festivals in alia: Bacchanalia, Saturnalia; which are regularly of the third Decl., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in orum of the second. Ancile, a shield, and a few other words also occur.

137. Of Declensions III. and V. are

1. Requies, rest; which is regularly of the third Decl., but also takes the forms requiem and requie of the fifth.

2. Fames, hunger; regularly of the third Decl., except in the ablative,

famē, of the fifth (not famē, of the third).

Class Second.1

- 138. Forms in ia and ies.—Many words of four syllables have one form in ia of Decl. I., and one in ies of Decl. V.: barbaria, barbaries, barbarism; duritia, durities, hardness; luxuria, luxuries, luxury; materia, materies, material; mollitia, mollities, softness.
- 139. Forms in us and um.—Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in us of Decl. IV., and one in um of Decl. II.: conātus, conātum, an attempt; eventus, eventum, event; praetextus, praetextum, pretext.
- 140. Many other Examples might be added. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: juventus (ūtis), youth; poetic, juventa (ae): senectus (ūtis), old age; poetic, senecta (ae): paupertas (ātis), poverty; poetic, pauperies (ei).

IV. HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS.—Two CLASSES.

- 1. With one form in the nominative singular.
- II. With different forms in the nominative singular.

Class First.

141. MASCULINE AND NEUTER.—Some masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Jocus, a jest; plur., joci and joca.

locus, place; " loci, topics, passages in books, places; loca, places. sibilus, hissing; " sibili; poetic, sibila.

142. Feminine and Neuter.—Some feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

¹ Sometimes called Redundant nouns, or abundantia.

Carbăsus, linen; plural, carbasi and carbasa, sails, &c. margarīta, pearl; " margarītae and margarīta, ōrum. ostrea, oyster; " ostreae and ostrea, ōrum.

- 143. Neuter and Masculine or Feminine.—Some neuters take in the plural a different gender; thus
 - Some neuters become masculine in the plural: Coelum, heaven; plural, coeli.

2. Some neuters generally become masculine in the plural, but sometimes remain neuter:

Frēnum, bridle; plur., freni, sometimes frena. rastrum, rake; "rastri," rastri.

 Some neuters become feminine in the plural: Epălum, public feast; plur, epulae, meal, banquet.

Class Second.

144. Forms in us and um.—Some nouns of the second declension have one form in us masculine and one in um neuter: clipeus, clipeum, shield; commentarius, commentarium, commentary; cubitus, cubitum, cubit; jugulus, jugulum, throat.

145. Heterogeneous Heteroclites.—Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: conātus (us), conātum (i), effort; menda (ae), mendum (i), fault.

CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.

146. The adjective is that part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: bonus, good; magnus, great.

The form of the adjective in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies; bonus puer, a good boy; bona puella, a good girl; bonum tectum, a good house. Thus bonus is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, bona with feminine, and bonum with neuter.

147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of the third declension.

I. FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

148. Adjectives of this class have in the nominative singular the endings:

Masc., Dec. II. Fem., Dec. I. Neut., Dec. II. us 1—, a, um.

They are declined as follows:

Bonus, good.

		, , , , , , , , , , , ,	
		SINGULAR.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neu t .
Nom.	bŏn ŭs	bŏn ă	bŏn ŭm
Gen.	bonī	bonae	bon ī
Dat.	$\mathtt{bon}\boldsymbol{\bar{o}}$	bonae	$bonar{o}$
Acc.	bon ŭm	bonăm	bonum
Voc.	$\mathtt{bon}reve{e}$	$\mathtt{bon} \breve{\mathbf{a}}$	bonŭm
Abl.	$\mathtt{bon} \boldsymbol{\bar{o}}$	$\mathtt{bon}\mathbf{\bar{a}}$	$\mathtt{bon} \boldsymbol{\bar{o}}$
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	bonī	bonae	bonă
Gen.	bon ōrŭm	bonārŭm	bonorum
Dat.	bonis	bon īs	bonīs
Acc.	$bonar{oldsymbol{o}}\mathbf{s}$	bonās	bonă
Voc.	bonI	bonae	bonă
Abl.	bonīs	bon is	bonīs.
		Liber, free.	
		SINGULAR.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	lībĕr	lībĕr ă	lībĕr ŭm
Gen.		liběr ac	liběr ī
Dat.	liběr ō	libĕr ae	liběr ō
	libĕr ŭm	libĕr ăm	liběr ům
Voc.		liběr ă	liběr ům
Abl.	liběr ō	liběr a	liběr ō
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	liběr ī	libĕr ac	liběr ă
Gen.	liber ōrŭm	liber ārŭm	liber ōrŭm
Dat.		liběr is	liběr īs
	libĕr ōs	liběr ās	liběr ă
Voc.	libĕr ī	liběr ac	libēr ă
Abl.	liběr īs	liběr īs	liběrīs.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ The dash indicates that the ending is sometimes wanting. See 45, 1.

Aeger, sick.

SINGULAR.

Nom.	aegĕr	`aegr ă	aegr ŭm
Gen.	aegrī	aegr ae	aegr ī .
Dat.	aegr ō	aegr ae	aegr ō
Acc.	aegriina	aegr ăm	aegr um
Voc.	aeger	aegr ă	aegr ŭm
Abl.	$\operatorname{aegr} \mathbf{\bar{o}}$	aegr ā	aegr ō ;
		PLURAL.	•
Nom.	aegr ī	aegr ae	aegr ă
Gen.	aegr ōrĭim	aegr ārŭm	aegr ōrŭm
Dat.	aegr īs	aegr īs	aegr īs
Acc.	acgr ōs	aegr ās	aegr ži
Voc.	aegrī	aegr ae	aegr ă
Abl.	aegr īs	aegr īs	aegrīs.

- 1. *Bonus* is declined in the Masc. like *servus* of Decl. II. (45), in the Fem. like *mensa* of Decl. I. (42), and in the Neut. like *templum* of Decl. II. (45).
- 2. Liber differs in declension from bonus only in dropping us and e in the Nom. and Voc. (45. 3, 1). Aeger differs from liber only in dropping e before r (45. 3, 2).
- Most adjectives in cr are declined like aeger, but the following in er and ur are declined like liber:
- 1) Asper, rough; läcer, torn; miser, wretched; prosper, prosperous; těner, tender; but asper sometimes drops the e, and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextera or dextra.
 - 2) Sătur, sated; satur, satŭra, satŭrum.
 - 3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; aliger, winged.

149. Irregularities.—These nine adjectives have in the singular **īus** in the genitive and **ī** in the dative:

Alius, another; nullus, no one; sōlus, alone; tōtus, whole; ullus, any; ūnus, one; alter, -tĕra, -tĕrum, the other; ŭter, -tra, -trum, which (of two); neuter, -tra, -trum, neither.

- 1. The Regular Forms occasionally occur in some of these adjectives: aliae, nulli, for alīus, nullīus; altēro, altērae, for alteri.
 - 2. I in ius in poetry is sometimes short; generally so in alterius.
- Alius has aliud for alium in the neuter, and shortens the genitive alius into alius.
- 4. Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervis, uterlibet, utercunque. In alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, as alterus utrius; and sometimes only the latter, as alterutrius.

II. ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

- 150. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes:
- I. Those which have in the nominative singular three different forms—one for each gender.
- II. Those which have two forms—the masculine and feminine being the same.
- III. Those which have but one form—the same for all genders.
- 151. I. Adjectives of Three Endings of this declension have in the nominative singular:

0.011			•
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
	er,	is,	e.
They are	declined as	follows:	

Acer, sharp.

	SINGULAR.	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N. ācĕr	ācrĭs	āerቒ
G. acris	acrĭs	acrĭs
D. acr 1	acrī	acrī
A. acrěm	acr ĕm	acrĕ
V. acĕr	acr¥s	acrě
A. acrī	aer ī	acrI;
	PLURAL.	
N. acres	acres	acr iă
G. acriŭm	acr iŭm	acr iŭm
D. acribus	acr ĭbŭs	acr ĭ bŭs
A. acrēs	acr ēs	acr iă
V. acrēs	acr ēs	acr iă
A. acribus	acr ĭbŭs	acr ībus.

1. Like Acer are declined:

2) Adjectives in er designating the months: October, bris.2

2 See also 87, 2,

¹⁾ Aläcer, lively; campester, level; celëber, famous; cëler, swift; equester, equestrian; paluster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; piter, putrid; salūber, healthful; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volücer, winged.

^{2.} The Masculine in is, like the Fem., also occurs: salābris, silvestris, for salūber, silvester.

¹ This retains e in declension: celer, celèris, celère; and has um in the Gen. Plur.

- 3. These forms in er are analogous to those in er (whether nouns or adjectives) of Dec. II. in dropping the ending in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and in inserting e before r. Thus ager, originally agrus, drops us, giving agr, and then inserts e to facilitate pronunciation, giving ager; so acer, originally acris, drops is and inserts e; acr, acer.
- 152. II. Adjectives of Two Endings have in the nominative singular:

M. and F. Neut.

- 1. is e, for positives.
- 2. ior (or) ius (us), for comparatives.

They are declined as follows:

Tristis, sad.

Tristior, more sad.1

217	·u	ι	L,	Α.	ĸ

M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F .	Neut.
N. tristĭs	trist č	N. tristiŏr	tristiŭs
G. trist is	trist ĭs	G. tristiōr ĭs	tristiōr ĭs
D. tristī	trist ī	$oldsymbol{D}$. tristiōr ${f T}$	tristiōr ī
A. trist ěm	t rist ĕ	A. tristiör ĕım	tristiŭs
V. tristĭs	tristĕ	V. tristiŏr	tristižs
1. trist1	trist I ;	A. tristiōr ĕ (1)	tristiõr ĕ (ī) ș

PLURAL.

N.	trist ēs	trist iă	N. tristior ēs trist	iōr ă
G.	trist iŭm	t rist iŭm	G. tristiõr ŭm trist	iōr ŭm
D.	trist ĭbŭs	trist ĭbŭs	D. tristiōr ĭbŭs trist	iōr ĭbŭs
A.	trist ēs	trist iă	A. tristiör ēs trist	iōr ă
V.	trist ēs	trist iă	V. tristiōr ēs trist	iōr ă
4	tricty Taxa	triot Y la Yes	A triction Three trict	ineiline

153. III. ADJECTIVES OF ONE ENDING.—All other adjectives have but one form in the nominative singular for all genders. They generally end in s or x, sometimes in l or r, and are declined in the main like nouns of the same endings. The following are examples:

Fēlix, happy.

Prüdens, prudent.

SINGULAR.

		DILIGORIAN	
M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
N. fēlix	fēlix	N. prūdens	prūdens
G. felīc ĭs	felīc ĭs	G. prudentĭs	prudentĭs
D . felic $\overline{1}$	felīcī	D . prudent \mathbf{I}	prudentI

¹ Comparative. For the declension of Plus, see 165. 1.

A. felīc ěm V. felix A. felīc ě, or ī	felix felix felīc ĕ, or I ;	A. prudent ěm V. prudens A. prudent ě, or E	prudens prudens prudent ě, or I ;
		PLURAL.	
N. felīcēs	felīc i ă	N. prudentēs	prudentin
G. felīc iŭm	felīciimu	G. prudentiăm	prudentivim
D. felīc ībūs	felīc ĭbŭs	D. prudentībŭs	prudentībus
A. felīcēs	felic iă	A. prudentēs	prudentiă
V. felīc ēs	felīc i ă	V. prudentēs	prudentiă
A. felīc ībŭs	felīc ĭbŭs.	A. prudentībūs	prudentibus.

FORMATION OF CASES OF ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

154. Adjectives of the third declension form their cases in general like nouns of the same endings, but present the following peculiarities:

I. Genitive Singular.

- 155. This presents a few irregularities, but in general the same as in nouns (58-83). Thus
 - 1. The following in es form the genitive not in the regular itis, but in ĕtis:—hĕbes, indīgĕs, praepes, tĕres.

2) ĭdis:—dēses, reses.

2. The following in es form it in

1) edis: -compounds of pes, foot, as, alipes, bipes, tripes.

2) ĕris:—pūbes, impūbes (sometimes is).
3) ētis:—inquies, locuples. 3. Adjectives in ceps form it in

1) cipis, if compounded of capio: princeps, principis.

2) cipitis, if compounded of caput: anceps, ancipitis. 4. Four in or form it in oris : -memor, immemor, bicorpor, tricorpor.

5. Other examples.—(1) Compos and impos form it in odis.—(2) Compounds in cors from cor have cordis: concors, discors. -(3) Caelebs has caelībis; dis, dītis; intercus, intercutis; praecox, praecocis; vētus, veteris.

II. Ablative Singular.

156. I. Ending:—ĕ or ī, in comparatives and adjectives of one ending: tristiore or rī; audace or cī.

II. ī, in other adjectives: acrī, tristī.

1. Comparatives generally have e, and adjectives of one ending, generally i; but participles in ans and ens have only e, except when used adjectively.

2. The Ablative in **e** in many adjectives of one ending cannot be verified from ancient authors.—The ablative in **i** is in general preferable.

3. Some have only **e** in general use.—(1) Pauper, paupère, poor; pūbes, pubère, mature;—(2) those in **es**, G. ĭtis or ĭdis: āles, dēses, dīves, sospes, superstes;—(3) caelebs, compos, impos, princeps.

4. The Ablative in e sometimes occurs in poetry in positives of more

than one ending: cognomine for cognomini, like named.

III. Nominative, Accusative and Vocative Plural of Neuters.

157. I. Ending:—iă în positives: acriă, tristiă. II. "ă în comparatives: tristiōră.

1. Vētus, old, has vetērā; complūres, several, has compluria or complūra.

2. The neuter plural is wanting in most adjectives of one ending, except those in as, ns, rs, ax, ix, ox, and numerals in plex.

IV. Genitive Plural.

158. I. Ending: imm in positives: acrium, tristium.
II. "imm in comparatives: tristiorum.

1. Some adjectives want the genitive plural.

2. Plūres, more, and complūres, several, have ium.

3. The following have um:

Adjectives of one ending with only e in the ablative singular (156.
 pauper, pauperum.

2) Those with the genitive in eris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old;

memor, memorum, mindful; cicur, cicurum, tame.

3) Those in ceps: anceps, ancipitum, doubtful.

- 4) Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, ŏpum), inŏpum, helpless.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

159. Irregular adjectives may be

I. Indeclinable: frūgi, frugal, good; nēquam, worthless; mille, thousand.

II. Defective: (ceterus) cetera, ceterum, the other, the rest; (sons)

sontis, guilty.

- III. Heteroclites.—Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilārus and hilāris, joyful; exanīmus and exanīmis, lifeless.
 - 1. The Latin has but few indeclinable adjectives, except numerals (175).

2. Some adjectives want

1) The nominative singular masculine: (ceterus) cetera, ceterum, the other; (Indicer) ludicra, ludicrum, sportive.

2) One or more cases in full: (seminex) seminěcis, half dead, defective in the nominative; exspes, hopeless, only used in the nominative; extex, law-

less, only in nominative and accusative; pernox, through the night, only in nominative and ablative.

3) The neuter gender or genitive plural. See 157. 2 and 158. 1.

4) The singular: pauci, ae, a, few; plerique, the most; the latter wants also the genitive plural, supplied by plurimi. The singular of plerique occurs, but is very rare. In good prose exterus wants the singular; and inferus, superus, and posterus are used in the singular only in particular expressions: mare inferum, the lower sea, i. e., south of Italy; mare superum, the upper sea, i. e., north of Italy, the Adriatic; posterus in expressions of time: diem posterum, the following day; nocte postera, on the following night.

3. In most heteroclites only one form is in common use in classic prose;

in a few, as in the examples under 159. III., both forms are approved.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

160. Adjectives have three forms to denote different degrees of quality. They are usually called the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative degree: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest.

Comparatives and superlatives are sometimes best rendered into English by too and very, instead of more and most: doctus, learned; doctior, more learned, or too learned; doctissimus, most learned, or very learned.

- 161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison:
 - I. Terminational Comparison—by endings.

II. Adverbial Comparison—by adverbs.

I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:

Comparative.

M. F. N. M. F. N.

ior, ior, ius. issimus, issimu, issimum.

Examples.

Altus, altior, altissımus: high, higher, highest. levis, levior, levissımus: light, lighter, lightest.

Irregular Terminational Comparison.

163. Irregular Superlatives.—Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus

1. Adjectives in **er** add **rĭmus** to the positive: ācer, acerior, acerrimus, sharp.

Vētus has veterrimus; matūrus, both maturrimus and maturissimus;

dexter, dextimus.

2. Six in ĭlis add lĭmus to the stem:

Facilis, difficilis; casy, difficult. similis, dissimilis; like, unlike. gracilis, humilis; slender, low;

thus: facilis, facilior, facillimus. Imbecillis has imbecillimus, but imbecillus is regular.

3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

and extimus. outward. exterior, extrēmus Extěrus. lower. and imus, inferior. infimus inférus. and summus, upper. suprēmus superior, superus, posterier, postrēmus and postumus, postěrus,

164. Compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in ens:

Maledicus, maledicentior, munificents, munificentior, benevolus, benevolentior, benevolentior, benevolentior, benevolentior, maledicentissimus, slanderous. munificentissimus, benevolent.

1. Egēnus and providus (needy and prudent), form the comparative and superlative from egens and providens: hence egention, egentissimus, etc.

2. Mirificissimus occurs as the superlative of mirificus, wonderful.
3. Many adjectives in dieus and fieus want the comparative and superlative.

165. Special Irregularities of Comparison.

good. optimus. Bŏnus, melior. bad. nessimus, mălus, pējor, great. maximus, mājor. magnus, small. minimus, minor, parvus, much. plurimus, multus, plus.

1. Plus is neuter, and has in the singular only N. and Λ . plus, and G. plūris. In the plural it has N. and Λ . plūres (m. and f.), plūra (n.), G. plurium, D. and Λ . pluribus.

2. Dīves, frūgi, nēquam:

Dives, divitior, divitissimus, rich. ditissimus, frugalior, frugalior, nequissimus, frugal.

Defective Terminational Comparison.

166. Positive Wanting:

former. nearer. | prior, prīmus, citimus, Citerior. proximus, nearer. propior, deterrimus, worse. deterior. farther.1 ultĭmus, intimus, inner. ulterior, interior. swifter. ocissimus. ocior.

¹ These adjectives are formed from citra, de, intra, Greek ἀκύς, prae or pro, prope, ultra.

167. Comparative Wanting.—The comparative is wanting

1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, meritissimus, deserving.

2. In these adjectives:

diversissimus, different. Diversus, novus, novissimus, falsus. falsissimus. false.săcer, sacerrimus, sacred. inclytissimus, renowned. vetus, veterrimus, old. inclytus.

168. Superlative Wanting.—The superlative is wanting

 In most verbals in ilis and bilis: docilis, docilior, docile; optabilis, optabilior, desirable. But of these

Some are compared in full: amabilis, facilis, fertilis, mobilis, nobilis,

utilis, etc.

2. In many adjectives in alis and ilis: capitalis, capitalior, capital; civīlis, civilior, civil.

3. Three adjectives supply the superlative thus:

Adolescens, adolescentior. minimus nātu.1 young. juvěnis. junior, minĭmus nātu, young. sĕnex. maximus nātu.1 senior.

4. A few other adjectives want the superlative: agrestis, alacer, caecus, diuturnus, infinītus, longinquus, opīmus, proclīvis, propinquus, salutāris, supīnus, surdus, teres, vulgāris.

169. Both Comparative and Superlative Wanting .- Many adjectives

have no terminational comparison:

1. Many from the nature of their signification, admitting no comparison; especially such as denote material, possession, or the relations of place and time: aureus, golden; adamantinus, adamantine; paternus, paternal; Romānus, Roman; hesternus, of yesterday; aestīvus, of summer; hibernus, of winter.
2. Many others.—Thus

1) Those in us preceded by a rowel, except those in quus: idoneus, suitable; noxius, hurtful. But a few in uus have the superlative: assiduus, strenuus. Other exceptions occur, especially in the poets: pius, piissimus; egregius, egregiissīmus.

2) Many derivatives and compounds, especially (1) derivatives in alis, ilis, ulus, icus, inus, orus: mortalis (mors), mortal; (2) compounds of verbs or of nouns: particeps (capio), sharing; magnanimus (animus), magnani-

mous.

3) Also albus, almus, cadūcus, ferus, fessus, gnārus, lassus, mīrus, mutilus, nāvus, nefastus, rudis, etc.

II.—ADVERBIAL COMPARISON.

170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most, to the positive:

¹ Smallest or youngest in age; greatest or eldest in age. Natu is sometimes omitted.

Arduus, mägis arduus, maxime arduus, arduous.

1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, valde, oppido, very; imprimis, apprime, in the highest degree; minus, less; minime, least: valde magna, very great. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of

very; perdifficilis, very difficult; praeclārus, very illustrious.

2. Strengthening Particles are sometimes used .- (1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multo, longe, much, far: etiam diligentior, even more diligent; multo diligentior, much more diligent .- (2) With the superlative: multo, longe, much, by far; quam, as possible: multo or longe diligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam diligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

NUMERALS.

171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.

I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

- 172. Numeral adjectives comprise three principal classes:
 - 1. CARDINAL NUMBERS: ūnus, one; duo, two.
 - 2. Ordinal Numbers: primus, first; secundus, second.
- 3. Distributives: singuli, one by one; bīni, two by two, two each, two apiece.

173. To these may be added

1. Multiplicatives.—These are adjectives in plex, G. plicis, denoting so many fold: simplex, single; duplex, double; triplex, three-fold.

2. PROPORTIONALS.—These are declined like bonus, and denote so many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

174. Table of Numeral Adjectives.

DISTRIBUTIVES. ORDINALS. CARDINALS. singuli, one by one. primus, 1 first, 1. ūnus, una, unum, bīni, two by two. secundus, second. 2. duo, duae, duo, terni (trini). tertius, third, 3. tres, tria, quaterni. quartus, fourth, 4. quattuor, quintus, fifth, quīni. 5. quinque, sēni. sextus, 6. sex, septēni. septimus, 7. septem, octoni. octāvus, 8. octo, novēni. nonus, 9. novem, dēni. decimus, děcem, undēni. undecimus, 11. unděcim,

¹ Prior is used in speaking of two, and alter is often used for secunding

_		
CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
12. duodĕeim,	duodecimus,	duodēni.
13. treděcim or decem	tertius decimus,6	terni dēni.
et tres,	,	
14. quattuorděcim,	quartus decimus,	quaterni dēni.
15. quindĕcim,	quintus decimus,	quini deni.
16. seděcim or sexdě-	sextus decimus,	sēni dēni.
cim,1	<i>'</i>	
17. septenděcim,¹	septimus decimus,	septēni dēni.
18. duodeviginti,2	duodevicesimus,7	duodevicēni.
19. undeviginti,2	undevicesimus,	undevicēni.
90 vicinti	vicesĭmus,8	vicēni.
21. \frac{\text{viginti, unus,}}{\text{unus, et viginti,}^3}	vicesimus prīmus,	vicēni singŭli.
21. (ūnus et viginti,3	ūnus et vicesimus,3	singŭli et vicēni.
oo (viginti duo,	vicesimus secundus,	vicēni bīni.
22. {viginti duo, duo et viginti,	alter et vicesimus,	bīni et vicēni.
30. triginta,	tricesĭmus,8	tricēni.
40. quadraginta,	quadragesimus,	quadragēni.
50. quinquaginta,	quinquagesimus,	quinquagēni.
60. sexaginta,	sexagesĭmus,	sexagēni.
70. septuaginta,	septuagesimus,	septuagēni.
80. oetoginta,	octogesimus,	octogěni.
90. nonaginta,	nonagesimus,	nonagēni.
100. centum,	centesimus,	centeni.
101. {centum ūnus, centum et ūnus, 4	centesimus primus,	centēni singŭli.
	centesimus et primus	centēni et singuli.
200. ducenti, ae, a,	ducentesimus,	ducēni.
300. trecenti,	trecentesimus,	trecēni.
400. quadringenti,	quadringentesimus,	quadringēni.
500. quingenti,	quingentesimus,	quingēni.
600. sexcenti,	sexcentesimus,	sexcēni.
700. septingenti,	septingentesimus,	septingēni.
800. octingenti,	octingentesimus,	octingēni.
900. nongenti,	nongentesimus,	nongēni.

1 Sometimes with the parts separated: decem et sex; decem et septem.

millesimus,

bis millesimus

singŭla millia.

bīna millia.

² If the tens precede the units, et is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

5 Sometimes bina millia or bis mille.

1,000. mille,

2,000. duo millia,5

² Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: decem et octo; decem et novem; so 28, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from triginta, etc., or by addition to viginti; duodetriginta or octo et viginti.

⁴ In compounding numbers above 100, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, etc., as in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: mille centum viginti or mille et centum viginti, 1,120.

⁶ Sometimes decimus precedes with or without et: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius.

⁷ Sometimes expressed by addition, like the corresponding cardinals: octārus decimus and nonus decimus.

⁸ Sometimes written with g: rigesimus; trigesimus.

CAEDINAIS.

10,000. décem millia,
100,000.. centum millia,
1,000,000. decies centêna millia,
lia,
1 decies centies millesĭmus,
decies centies millesĭmus,

DISTRIBUTIVES. dēna millia. centēna millia. decies centēna millia.

1. Ordinals with Pars, part, expressed or understood, may be used to express fractions: tertia purs, a third part, a third; quarta pars, a fourth; duae tertiae, two thirds.

2. Distributives are used

1) To show the *number* of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *cach* or *apicce*; ternos denarios accepērunt, they received *cach* three denarii, or three apicce. Hence

2) To express Multiplication: decies centena millia, ten times a

hundred thousand, a million.

3) Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: bīna castra, two camps. Here for singūli and terni, ūni and trīni are used: unae littērae, one letter; trinae littērae, three letters.

 Sometimes in reference to objects spoken of in pairs: bīni scijphi, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: bīna hasti-

lia, two spears.

3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding num-

bers: bis sex, for ducděcim; bis septem, for quattuorděcim.

4. Sexecuti and mille are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as one thousand is in English.

DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

175. On the declension of cardinals observe

- 1. That the units, ūnus, duo, and tres, are declined.
- 2. That the other units, all the tens, and centum are indeclinable.
- 3. That the hundreds are declined.
- 4. That mille is sometimes declined.
- 176. The first three cardinals are declined as follows:

1. Unus, one.

			i. Chao, one	•		
		Singular	•	P	lural.	
D. $A.$	ūnŭs, unīŭs, unī, unŭm,	ūnă, unīŭs, unī, unăm,	ūnŭm, unīŭs, unī, unŭm,	ūnī, unōrŭm, unīs, unōs,	ūnae, unārŭm, unīs, unās,	ūnă, unōrŭm, unīs, ună,
	uně, unō,	ună, unā, Duo, <i>two</i>	unŭm, unō;	unīs,	unis, Tres, thi	unīs.
	. I	Juo, two	•	ο.	1105, 000	
	duŏ, duōrŭm,		duŏ, duōrŭm,²	trēs, m. c triŭm,	and f .	triă, n. triŭm,

¹ Literally ten times a hundred thousand; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with centena millia: centies centena millia, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations centena millia is understood and only the adverb is expressed, and sometimes centum millia is used.

² Duorum and duarum are sometimes shortened to duum.

D. duōbŭs, duābŭs, duōbŭs, A. duōs, duŏ, duās, trībŭs. trībŭs. duŏ. trēs, triă, A. duobus. duābūs, duōbūs. tribŭs,

1. The plural of unus in the sense of alone may be used with any noun; uni Ubii, the Ubii alone; but in the strict numeral sense of one, it is used only with such nouns as, though plural in form, are singular in sense: una castra, one camp; unae litterae, one letter.

2. Like duo is declined ambo, both.

3. Multi, many, and plūrimi, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the sing. But in the poets the sing. occurs in the sense of many a: multa hostia, many a victim.

177. Hundreds, ducenti, trecenti, etc., are declined like the plural of bonus: ducenti, ae, a.

178. Mille is used both as an adjective and as a substantive. As an adjective it is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular only in the nominative and accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of mare (50): millia, millium, millĭbus.

With the substantive Mille, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the genitive: mille hominum, a thousand men (of men); but it is in the same case as mille, if a declined numeral intervenes: tria millia trecenti milites, three thousand three hundred soldiers.

179. Ordinals are declined like bonus and distributives like the plural of bonus, but the latter often have um for orum in the genitive; bīnum for binorum.

180. NUMERAL SYMBOLS.

ARABIC. 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	I. II. III. IV. V. VII. VIII. IX. XII. XII	ARABIC. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 30. 40. 50. 60. 70.	ROMAN. XVII. XVIII. XVIII. XIX. XXI. XXII. XXII. XXXI. L. L. LXX. LXX	ARABIC. 101. 200. 300. 400. 500. 700. 800. 900. 1,000. 2,000. 10,000. 1,000,000.	EOMAN. CI. CCC. CCCC. ID, or D. DCC. DCCC. DCCC. CID, or M. CIDCID, or MM. CCIDD. CCCIDDD. CCCIDDD.
15.	XV.	100.	C.	1,000,000.	CCCCIDDDD.
1 7 . 4	'		0. 1		

 Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I = 1; V = 5; X = 10; L = 50; C = 100; ID or D = 500; CID or M = 1,000.

¹ Thousands are sometimes denoted by a line over the symbol: $\overline{II} = 2,000$; \overline{V} = 5,000.

2. In the Combination of these symbols, except IO, observe

1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: II = 2; XX = 1

20; $\acute{C}C = 200$.

2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: V = 5; IV = 4 (5-1); VI = 6 (5+1).

3. In the Combination of IO observe

1) That each 2 (inverted C) after I2 increases the value ten-fold: I2 = 500; I22 $= 500 \times 10 = 5,000$; I222 $= 5,000 \times 10 = 50,000$.

2) That these numbers are doubled by placing C the same number of times before I as 0 stands after it: ID = 500; CID = $500 \times 2 = 1,000$; IDD = 5,000; CCIDD = $5,000 \times 2 = 10,000$.

3) That smaller symbols standing after these add their value: ID =

500; IOC = 600; IOCC = 700.

II. NUMERAL ADVERBS.

181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs. For convenience of reference we add the following table:

1. sěmel, once	15. {quinquiesdecies quindecies	80.	octogies
2. bis, twice		90.	nonagies
3. ter, three times	16. sexiesdecies	100.	centies
4. quater	16. (sedecies	101.	centies semel
5. quinquies	17. septiesdecies	200.	ducentics
6. sexies	18. (duodevicies (octiesdecies	300.	trecenties
7. septies	16. (octiesdecies	400.	quadringenties
8. octies	19. (undevicies) noviesdecies	500.	quingenties
9. nŏvies	noviesdecies	600.	sexcenties
10. dĕcies	20. vicies	700.	septingenties
11. undecies	21. sĕmel et vicies	800.	octingenties
12. duodecies	22. bis et vicies	900.	noningenties 1
13. terdecies tredecies	30. tricies	1,000.	millies
15. tredecies	40. quadragies	2,000.	bis millies
14. {quaterdecies quattuordecies	50. quinquagies	10,000.	decies millies
11. quattuordecies	60. sexagies	100,000.	centies millies
• =	70. septuagies	1,000,000.	millies millies.
- T 0 1	0 1 1		. 11

1. In Compounds of units and tens, the unit with et generally precedes, as in the table: bis et vicies; the tens however with or without et sometimes precede: vicies et bis or vicies bis, but not bis vicies.

2. Another Class of numeral adverbs in um or o is formed from the ordinals: prīmum, prīmo, for the first time, in the first place; tertium, tertio, for the third time.

1 Also written nongenties.

² Millies is often used indefinitely like the English a thousand times.

CHAPTER III.

PRONOUNS.

- 182. The Pronoun is that part of speech which properly supplies the place of nouns: ego, I; tu, thou.
 - 183. Pronouns are divided into six classes:
 - 1. Personal Pronouns: tu, thou.
 - 2. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
 - 3. Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, this.
 - 4. Relative Pronouns: qui, who.
 - 5. Interrogative Pronouns: quis, who?
 - 6. Indefinite Pronouns: aliquis, some one.

I. Personal Pronouns.

184. Personal Pronouns, so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, are ego, I; tu, thou; sui (Nom, not used), of himself, herself, itself.

They are declined as follows:

S	INGULAR.	
N. ĕgŏ	tū	
G. meī	tuī	suī
D. mihř	tĭbĭ	sĭbĭ
A. mē	tē .	sē
V.	tū	
$A. \mathrm{mreve{e}};$	tē;	sē;
	PLURAL.	
N. nõs	$v\bar{o}s$	
G. nostrům)	vestrŭm (suī
or. nostrī 1	vestrī¹ ∫	Still
D. nöbīs	võbis	sĭbĭ
A. nõs	vös	sē
V	vös	
A. nöbīs.	võbīs.	sē.

^{1.} Substantive Pronouns.—Personal pronouns are also called Substantive

pronouns, because they are always used as substantives.

2. Reflexive Pronoun.—Sui, from its reflexive signification, of himself, etc., is often called the Reflexive pronoun.

¹ On the use of these two forms see 446. &

3. Emphatic Forms in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur.: egŏmet, I myself; mihimet, tēmet, etc. But the Nom. tu has tūte and tutěmet, for tūmet.

4. Reduplicated Forms: - sese, tete, mēmē, for se, te, me.

5. Ancient and Rare Forms:—mis for mei; tis for tui; mī and mē for mihi; mehe, med, and mepte for me; ted for te.

6. Cum, when used with the ablative of these pronouns, is appended to

them: mēcum, tēcum.

II. Possessive Pronouns.

185. From Personal pronouns are formed the Possessives:

> meus, my, noster, our, tuus, thy, your, suus, his, her, its, vester, your, suus, their.

They are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions: meus, mea, meum; noster, nostra, nostrum; but meus has in the vocative singular masculine generally mi, sometimes meus.

1. Emphatic Forms, in pte and met occur, especially in the Abl. Sing.:

suapte, suamet.
2. The Patrials, nostras, of our country, and vestras, of your country, are also possessives. They have the genitive in ātis, and are declined as adjectives of Decl. III., but are little used.

3. Cujus and Cujas.—Cujus (a, um, whose?) and the patrial cujas (ātis, of what country?) also belong to possessives, though, not like other possessives, formed from personal pronouns, but from the interrogative quis, cujus. See 188.

III. Demonstrative Pronouns.

186. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they specify the objects to which they refer, are

Hic, ille, iste, ipse, is, idem.

They are declined as follows:

Hic. this.

	SINGULA	R.		PLURAL.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. hǐc G. hujŭs D. huīc A. hunc V.	haec hujŭs huic hanc	hŏc hujŭs huīc hŏc	hī hōrŭm hīs hōs	hae hārŭm hīs hās	haec hōrŭm hīs haec
A. hōc	hāc	hōc;	hīs	hīs	hīs.

Illě, he or that.

	SINGULA	R.		PLURAL.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. illě G . illīŭs	illă illīŭs	illŭd illīŭs	illī illōrŭm	illae illārŭm	illă illōrŭm
D. illī A . illūm V .	illī illăm	illī il lŭd	illīs illōs	illīs illās	illīs illā
A. illō	illā	$\mathrm{ill} \bar{o};$	illīs	illīs	illīs.
		Tot	× +1+		

Istě, that.

Istě, that, is declined like illé. It usually refers to objects which are present to the person addressed, and sometimes expresses contempt.

P		CIII CO				
	$\operatorname{Ipse}, \operatorname{self}, \operatorname{he}.$					
		SINGULAR.		1	PLURAL.	
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	ipsĕ	ipsă	ipsŭm	ipsī	ipsae	ipsă
G.	ipsīŭs	ipsīŭs	ipsīŭs	ipsörŭm	ipsārŭm	ipsōrŭm
D.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
V_{\cdot}^{A}	ipsŭm	ipsăm	ipsŭm	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsă
	$ips\bar{o}$	ipsā	ipsō;	$ips\bar{i}s$	ipsīs	ipsīs.
			Is, he ,	that.		
		SINGULAR.		1	PLURAL.	
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	ĭs	eă	ĭd	iī	eae	eă
G.	ejŭs	ejŭs	ejŭs	${ m ear or reve{u}m}$	eārŭm	eōrŭm
D.	eī	eī	eī	iīs (eīs)	iīs (eīs)	iīs (eīs)
V.	eŭm	eăm	ĭd	eōs	eās	eă
A.	eō	eā ·	eō;	iīs (eīs)	iīs (eīs)	iīs (eīs).

Idem, the same.

Idem, compounded of is and dem, is declined like is, but shortens is dem to idem and iddem to idem, and changes m to n before the ending dem; thus:

	SINGULAR.		I	LURAL.	
M.	F.	N.	М.	F.	Λ .
	\mathbf{e} ă \mathbf{d} ĕ \mathbf{m}	ĭdĕm	${f i}_{ar{1}}{f d}reve{\epsilon}{f m}$	eaedĕm	eădĕm
G. ejusděm					eōrundĕm
D. eiděm			${f i}$ isdě ${f m}$		iisděm 1
A. eunděm	eandĕm	ĭdĕm	${ m e}ar{ m o}{ m s}{ m d}reve{ m e}{ m m}$	e āsdĕm	eåděm
V	- 71/				
A. eōděm	eādĕm	eōdėm;	iisdĕm	iisděm	iisdĕm.¹≰

¹ Sometimes eisdem in all genders. Iidem and iisdem are in poetry dissyllables, and are sometimes written idem and isdem.

1. Emphatic Forms in ce occur in the several cases of hic and sometimes in other demonstratives: hicce, haecce, hocce (also hice, haece or haec, etc.), hujusce, hosce, hisce; harunce, harunce (m changed to n), harunc (e dropped). Before the interrogative ne, ce becomes ci: hiccine, hoscine.

2. Illic and istic or isthic for ille and iste occur. They are declined

alike, and are used only in certain cases. Thus

Sing., Nom. illie, illaec, illöe or illūe,

Acc. illune, illane, illöe,

Abb. illöe, illöe;

Illoe, illöe;

Plur.

illaec, generally Neut., sometimes Fem.

3. Ancient and Rare Forms:

1) Of ILLE and ISTE: illi, illae, illi, Gen. for illius; isti, istae, isti for istius; illae and istae, Dat. Fem. for illi and isti; also forms from ollus for ille: olli, olla, ollos, etc.

2) Of IPSE, compounded of is and pse (is-pse = ipse); the uncontracted forms: Acc. eumpse, eampse, Abl. eopse, eapse; with re: re eapse, reapse for re ipsa, in reality; also ipsus, a, um, etc., for ipse, a, um.

3) Of Is: eii, eae, eii, Dat. for ei; iibus (ibus), eābus, iibus (ibus) for iis.

4) Syncopated forms, compounded of ecce or en, lo, see, and some cases of demonstratives, especially the Acc. of ille and is; eccum for ecce eum; eccam for ecce cam; eccos for ecce eos; eccillum, ecce illum, eccillam, ecce illam; ellum, en illum; ellam, en illam.

4. Demonstrative Adjectives: tālis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot,

so many; tolus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular.

For tālis, the Gen. of a demonstrative with modi (Gen. of modus, measure, kind) is often used: hujusmodi, ejusmodi, of this kind, such; illiusmodi, istiusmodi, of that kind, such.

IV. BELATIVE PRONOUNS.

187. The Relative qui, who, so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:

	,				
	SINGULA	R.	`	PLURAL.	
Л.	F.	7.	M.	F_{\bullet} .	N.
N. qui	quae	quŏ d	quī	° qůae	quae
G . cuj ŭs	cujus	cujŭs	quōrŭm	quārŭm	quōrŭm
D . cu	cui	eui	quibŭs	quibŭs	quĭbŭs
A. quěm	quăm	quŏd	quös	quās	quae
<i>V</i> .		L			41 V
A. quō	quā	quō ;	quĭbŭs	quĭbŭs	quĭbŭs.

1. Ancient and Rare Forms: quojus and quoi for cujus and cui; qui for quo, qua, quo; quis (queis) for quibus.

2. Cum, when used with the ablative of the relative, is generally appended to it: quibuscum.

3. Cujus, a, um, whose, as a possessive formed from the genitive cujus,

sometimes occurs,

4. Quicunque and Quisquis, whoever, are called from their signification general relatives. Quicunque (quicumque) is declined like qui. Quisquis is rare except in the forms: quisquis, quidquid (quicquid), quoquo; but an old genitive cuicui for cujuscujus occurs.

5. Compounds resolved.—Quicunque and similar compounds are sometimes resolved and their parts separated by one or more words: qua re cun-

que.

6. Uter and Utercunque, which and whichever, also occur with the force

of relatives.

7. Relative Adjectives: quālis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quot, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and com-pound forms: qualisqualis, qualiscunque; quantusquantus, quantuscunque; quotquot, quotcunque; quotuscunque.

Quotquot is indeclinable; in the other double forms both parts are de-

clined; in the forms in cunque, of course only the first part is declined.

For Quālis the genitive of the relative with modi is often used: cvjusmodi (sometimes cuimodi), cujuscemodi, of what kind, such as; cujuscunquemodi, cuicuimodi (for cujuscujusmodi, 4), of whatever kind.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

188. Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions. The most important are

Quis and qui with their compounds.

Quis (who, which, what?) is generally used substantively, and is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR	₹.		PLURAL.	
M.	F.	1.	M.	F.	N.
N. quis G. cujus D. cui A. quem V.	quae cujús cui quăm	quĭd cujŭs cuĭ quĭd	quī quōrŭm quĭbŭs quōs	quae quārŭm quĭbŭs quās	quae quōrŭin quibŭs quae
A. quō	quā	quō;	quibus	quibŭs	quĭbŭs.

 $Qu\bar{\imath}$ (which, what?) is generally used adjectively, and is declined like the relative qui.

1. Quis and Quem semetimes occur as feminine forms.

2. Qui as an ablative with an adverbial force in the sense of how? sometimes occurs. The other ancient forms are the same as in the relative,

187. 1.

3. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns: quisnam, quinam, ecquis, etc. But ecquis has sometimes ecqua for ecquae.

4. Interrogative Adjectives: (1) Qualis, e, what? quantus, a, um, how great? qubt, how many? qubtus, a, um, of what number? uter, utra, utrum, which (of two)? See 149. (2) The Possessive interrogative, eujus, a, um, whose? and the Patrial evjus, atis, of what country?

Cujus is defective and little used. It has the Nom. and Acc. Sing., and

in the feminine also the Abl. Sing. and the Nom. and Accus. Plur.

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

189. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are

Quis and qui with their compounds.

- 190. Quis, any one, and qui, any one, any, are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and qui.
- 1. Quis and Qui are generally used after si, nisi, ne, and num; si quis, si qui. But they also occur without such accompaniment.

2. Qua for Quae.—After si, nisi, ne, and num, the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. have quae or qua: si quae, si qua.

- 191. From quis and qui are formed
- I. The Indefinites:

alíqua, alíquid or alíquod, some, some one. alíquis, quispiam, quaepiam, quidpiam or quodpiam, some, some one. quaedam, quiddam or quoddam, certain, certain one. quisquam, quaequam quidquam,1 any one.

II. The General Indefinites:

quaeque, quidque or quodque, every, every one. quisque, quaevis, quidvis or quodvis, any one you please. auīvis. quaelibet, quidlibet or quodlibet, any one you please. quilibet,

1. Declension .- It may be remarked

1) That these compounds are generally declined like the simple quis and qui, but have in the Neut. Sing. both quod and quid, the former used adjectively, the latter substantively.

2) That aliquis has aliqua instead of aliquae in the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Aliqui for aliquis occurs.

3) That quidam generally changes m to n before d: quendam for quemdam.

4) That quisquam generally wants the Fem. and the Plur.
5) That unus prefixed to quisque does not affect its declension: unusquisque, unaquaeque, etc.
2. Other Indefinites are: alius, alter, üter, alterüter, neuter, ullus, nul-

lus, nemo. 3. Other General Indefinites may be formed from uter: uterque, both,

cach; utervis, uterlibet, either you please.
4. Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives: qualislibet, qualelibet, of any sort; aliquantus, a, um, of some size; aliquot (indeclinable), several.

For qualislibet the Gen. of an indefinite pronoun with modi may be used:

eujusdammödi, of some kind.

CHAPTER IV.

VERBS.

192. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.

¹ Sometimes written respectively, quippiam and quicquam.

² Sometimes written quicque.

VERBS. 65

193. Verbs comprise two principal classes:

I. Transitive Veres,—which admit a direct object of their action: servum verbërat, he beats the slave.

II. Intransitive Verbs,—which do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.

194. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. Voices.

195. There are two Voices:

I. The Active Voice,—which represents the subject as acting or existing: pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.

II. The Passive Voice,—which represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing: filius a patre amātur, the son is loved by his father.

1. Passive Wanting.—Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive. See 301. 3.

2. Active Wanting.—Deponent Verbs 1 are Passive in form, but not in sense: lõquor, to speak. But see 221.

II. Moods.

196. Moods are either Definite or Indefinite:

I. The Definite or Finite Moods make up the Finite Verb; they are:

1. The Indicative Mood,—which either asserts something as a *fact* or inquires after the fact: *legit*, he is reading; *legitne*, is he reading?

2. The Subjunctive Mood,—which expresses not an actual fact, but a *possibility* or *conception*, often rendered by may, can, etc.: *lēgat*, he may read, let him read.

3. The Imperative Mood,—which expresses a command or an entreaty: lège, read thou.

II. The Indefinite Moods express the meaning of the verb in the form of nouns or adjectives; they are:

 $^{^1}$ So called from $dep\~ono$, to lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning.

1. The Infinitive,—which, like the English Infinitive, gives the simple meaning of the verb without any necessary reference to person or number: *legère*, to read.

2. The GERUND,—which gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension, used only in the *genitive*, *dative*, *accusative*, and *ablative singular*. It corresponds to the English participial noun in ING: amandi, of loving; amandi causa, for the sake of loving.

3. The SUPINE,—which gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension, used only in the accusative and ablative singular: amātum, to love, for loving; amātu, to be loved, in loving.

4. The Participle,—which, like the English participle, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective.

A Latin verb may have four participles: two in the Active, the Present and Future—amans, loving; amatūrus, about to love;—and two in the Passive, the Perfect and Future—amātus, loved; amandus, deserving to be loved.

III. Tenses.

197. There are six tenses:

- I. THREE TENSES FOR INCOMPLETE ACTION:
- 1. Present: amo, I love.
- 2. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving.
- 3. Future: amābo, I shall love.
- II. THREE TENSES FOR COMPLETED ACTION:
- 1. Perfect: amāvi, I have loved, I loved.
 - 2. Pluperfect: amaveram, I had loved.
 - 3. Future Perfect: amavero, I shall have loved.

198. Remarks on Tenses.

- 1. Present Perfect and Historical Perfect.—The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite.
 - 2. Principal and Historical.—Tenses are also distinguished as
 - 1) Principal:—Present, Present Perfect, Future, and Future Perfect.
 - 2) Historical: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, and Pluperfect.

3. Tenses Wanting.—The Subjunctive wants the Future and Future Perfect; the Imperative has only the Present and Future; the Infinitive, only the Present, Perfect, and Future.

IV. Numbers.

199. There are two numbers: Singular and Plural.

V. Persons.

200. There are three persons: First, Second, and Third.

CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the

INFINITIVE ENDINGS.

Conj. I.	Conj. II.	Conj. III.	Conj. IV
āre,	ēre,	ĕre,	īre.

202. Principal Parts.—Four forms of the verb,—the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine,—are called from their importance the *Principal Parts* of the verb.

203. Entire Conjugation.—In any regular verb

- 1. The Present Stem² may be found by dropping the infinitive ending: amāre; stem, am.
- 2. The Principal Parts may be formed from this stem by means of proper endings.
- 3. The Entire Conjugation of the verb through all its parts may be readily formed from these Principal Parts by means of proper endings.³

¹ As in Nouns. See 37.

² For fuller treatment of stems, see 241, 242,

³ In the Paradigms of regular verbs, the endings, both those which distinguish the Principal Parts and those which distinguish the forms derived from those parts, are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed.

204. Sum, I am.

Sum is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Supine
sŭm,	essě,	fuī,	

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

	I	am.	
	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
εŭm,	I am,	sŭmŭs,	we are,
ĕs,	thou art,1	estĭs,	you are,
est,	he is;	sŭmŭs, estĭs, sunt,	they are.
	Імре	RFECT.	1
	I	was.	
ĕrăm,	I~was,	ĕrāmŭs,	we were,
erās,	thou wast,	erātĭs,	you were,
erăt,	he was;	ěrāmŭs, erātĭs, erant,	they were.
		TURE.	
	I shall ϵ	or will be.	
ĕrŏ,	I shall bc ,	ĕrimŭs,	we shall be,
erĭs,	thou wilt be,	erĭtĭs,	you will be,
erĭt,	he will be;	erunt,	we shall be, you will be, they will be.
		FECT.	
	I have l	ocen, was.	
fuī,	I have been,	fuĭmŭs,	we have been,
fuistī,	thou hast been,	fuistĭs,	you have been,
fuĭt,	he has been;	fuërunt,) fuërë, }	we have been, you have been, they have been.
	Plur	ERFECT.	
		l been.	
fuĕrăm,	I had been,	fuĕrāmŭs,	we had been,
fuĕrās,	thou hadst been,	fuĕrātĭs,	you had been,
fuĕrăt,	he had been ;	fuĕrant,	we had been, you had been, they had been.
	FUTURE	Perfect.	
	I shall or w		
	I shall have been,	fuĕrīmŭs,	we shall have been,
fuĕrīs,	thou wilt have been,	fuĕrītĭs,	you will have been,
fuĕrĭt,	thou wilt have been, he will have been;	fuĕrint,	we shall have been, you will have been, they will have been.

¹ Or you are; thou is confined mostly to solemn discourse; in ordinary English, you are is used both in the singular and in the plural.

PRESENT.

Τ	may	Or	000	Lo
1	muu	OI.	ease	UE.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
sĭm,	I may be,	sīmŭs,	we may be,
sīs,	thou mayst be,	sītĭs,	you may be,
sĭt	he may be;	sint,	they may be.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should be.

essěm,	I might be,	essēmŭs,	we might be,
essēs,	thou mightst be,	essētĭs,	you might be,
essĕt,	he might be;	essent,	they might be.

PERFECT.

I may or can have been.

fuĕrĭm,	I may have been,	fuĕrīmus,	we may have been,
fuĕrĭs,	thou mayst have been,	fuĕrĭtĭs,	you may have been,
fuĕrĭt,			they may have been.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have been.

fuissěm,	I might have been,	fuissēmŭs,	we might have been,
fuissēs,	thou mightst have been,	fuissētĭs,	you might have been.
fuissĕt,	he might have been;	fuissent,	they might have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	ĕs,	be thou,	estĕ,	le ye,
FUT.		thou shalt be, 1 he shall be 1;	estōtĕ, suntŏ,	ye shall be, they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres.	essĕ,	to be,	
Perf.	fuissĕ,	to have been,	
Fur.	fŭtūrŭs ²	essě, to be about to	Fur. f
	he		

Fut. futurus,2 about to be.

1. Rare Forms are: föröm, förös, föröt, förent, and förö, for essem, esses, esset, essent, and futürus esse. See 297. III. 2.

2. Antiquated Forms are: siem, sies, siet, sient, for sim, sis, sit, sint; also fuam, fuas, fuat, fuant, for the same.

¹ The Fut. may also be rendered like the Pres. or with let: be thou; let him be.

Futurus is declined like bonus. So in the Infinitive: futurus, a, um esse.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

205. Amo, I love.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. ăm**ō**, ăm**ārĕ**, ăm**āvī**, ăm**ātŭm.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

I love, am loving, do love.

SINGULAR.		FLUKAL.	
ăm ŏ ,	$I\ love,$	ļ ām āmus ,	we love,
ăm ās ,	thou lovest,	ăm āt is,	you love,
ăm ăt,	he loves;	ăm ant,	they love.

IMPERFECT.

4	I loved, was	loving, did love.	
ămābăm,	I was loving,	ămābāmŭs,	
ămābās,	thou wast loving,	ăm ābātĭs ,	you were lovin

ămābăt,	he was loving;	
amatotti	ne was voteny,	ı

ăm**ābātis,** you were loving, ăm**ābant,** they were loving.

FUTURE.

I shall or will love.

ăm ābŏ,	I shall love,	ămābimŭs,	we shall love,
ămābĭs,	thou wilt love,	ăm ābĭtĭs ,	you will love,
ămābĭt,	he will love ;	ăm ābunt,	they will love.

Perfect.

I loved, have loved.

ămāvī,	I have loved,	ămāv imus, we have loved,
ămāvistī,	thou hast loved,	ămāvistis, you have loved,
ămāvĭt,	he has loved;	ămāvērant, ērē, they have loved

PLUPERFECT.

I had loved.

ămāv ērām ,	I had loved,	ămāv ērāmŭs ,	we had loved,
ămāv ērās ,	thou hadst loved,	ămāv ĕrātĭs ,	you had loved,
ămāv erāt,	he had loved;	ămāv ĕrant,	they had loved.

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have loved.

ămāv ĕrŏ,	I shall have loved,	ămāv ērīmŭs, w	e shall have loved,
ămāv ērīs ,	thou wilt have loved,	ămāv ĕrītĭs, yo	u will have loved,
ămāvěrit.	he will have loved:	ămāverint. the	cy will have loved.

Subjunctive.

PRESENT.

I may or can love.

S	IX	G	T.	LA	R.

ăměm,

ămēs.

ămět.

I may love, thou mayst love. he may love;

ămēmus, ăm**ētis**, ăment.

we may love, you may love, they may love.

PLURAL.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should love.

ămārem. I might love, ămārēs. thou mightst love, ămārět, he might love;

ămārēmus, we might love, ămārētis, you might love, ămārent, they might love.

Perfect.

I may or can have loved.

ămāv**ērīm.** I may have loved, ămāv**ērīs.** ămāv**ērīt,** he may have loved;

| ămāverīmus, we may have loved, thou mayst have loved, amaveritis, you may have loved, ămāverint, they may have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have loved.

ămāvissem, I might have loved, ămāvissēs, thou mightst have

ămāvissēmus, we might have loved.

loved. ămāvissētis, you might have loved, ămāvissēt, he might have loved; | ămāvissent, they might have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ămā. love thou:

FUT. ămāto, thou shalt love, ămāto, he shall love;

lăm**ātě.** love ye. ămātotě. ye shall love.

ămantō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ămārě. to love.

Perf. ămāvissě, to have loved.

Fut. ămāt**ūrus** 2 esse. to be about to love.

PARTICIPLE.

they shall love.

Pres. ămans.1

FIT. ămātūrus,2 about to love.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. ămandī, of loving, Dat. ăm**andŏ**, for loving,

Acc. ămandum, loving, Abl.ămandŏ, by loving.

Acc. ămāt**um**, to love. Abl.to love, be loved. ămāt**ū.**

Decline like prudens, 153.

² Decline like bonus, 148.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

PASSIVE VOICE.

206. Amor, I am loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. ăm**čr**, Pres. Inf. ăm**ārī,**

Perf. Ind. amāt**ŭs sŭm.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

I am loved.

SINGULAR. mor

ămāris, or rě ămātŭr;

PLEBAL.

ăm**āmŭr** ăm**ămĭnī** imantiir.

IMPERFECT.

I was loved.

ămā băr ămābāris, or re

ămābātur;

ăm**ābām**ŭr ămābāmimī ămāleantier.

FUTURE.

I shall or will be loved.

ăm**ā bor** ămāběris, or rě ămābitur:

ăm**ābimur** ămābiminī ămābuntur.

PERFECT.

I have been or was loved.

ămātijs sijum 1 ămāt**us** es ămātus est:

ămātī siimiis ămātī estis ămătī sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

I had been loved.

ămātiis črāmı ămāt**ns ērās** ămātus erat;

ămātī erāmus ămātī **ĕrāt**ĭs ămătī **ĕrant.**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been loved.

amatus ero 1 ămāt**ūs erīs**

ămătī ĕrimus ămātī čritis

ămātus erīt:

ămătī erumt.

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc., thus, amatus fui for amātus sum. So fueram, fueras, etc., for eram, eras, etc.; also fuero, fueris, etc., for ero, eris, etc.

PRESENT.

I may or can be loved.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ăměr ămēris, or re ămētŭr:

ămēmur ămēmīnī ămentur.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should be loved.

ămārĕr ămārēris, or rě ămārētur;

ăm**ārēmŭr** ămārēminī ămārentur.

PERFECT.

I may have been loved.

ămāt**ŭs sīm** ! ămāt**ŭs sīs** ămātus sīt:

ămātī sīmus ămātī sītis ămātī sint.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have been loved.

ămāt**ŭs essēm** 1 ămāt**us essēs** ămātūs essět:

ămātī essēmus ămātī essētīs ămātī essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ămārě, be thou loved ;

ămāmīnī, be ye lored.

FUT. ămātor, thou shalt be loved, ămātor, he shall be loved;

ămantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. amatus, having been loved.

Pres. ămārī, to be loved.

Perf. ămātus esse, to have been loved.

Fur. amandus, to be loved.

Fur. amatum irī, to be about to be loved.

¹ Fuèrim, fuèris, etc., are sometimes used for sim, sis, etc. So also fuissem, fuisses, etc., for essem, esses, etc.; rarely fuisse for esse.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

207. Moneo, I advise.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mŏn**eŏ.** Pres. Inf. mŏn**ērĕ.** Perf. Ind. mŏn**uī,** Supine. mŏnĭ**tŭm.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

I advise.

SINGULAR.

mŏn**eŏ** mŏn**ēs**

mŏn**ēs** mŏn**ēt**: PLURAL.

mönēmus mönētis mönent.

IMPERFECT.

I was advising.

mŏn**ēbām** mŏn**ēbās** mŏn**ēbāt**; monēbāmus monēbātis monēbant.

FUTURE.

I shall or will advise.

mön**ebö** mön**ebis** mön**ebit**: mön**ebim**üs mön**ebiti**s mön**ebunt.**

PERFECT.

I advised or have advised.

mŏnuī mŏnu**istī** mŏnu**it**; mŏnu**im**ŭs mŏnu**istĭs** mŏnu**ērumt,** or **ērĕ.**

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

mŏnu**ĕrām** mŏnu**ĕrās** mŏnu**ĕrāt**: mŏnu**ĕrāmŭs** mŏnu**ĕrāt**ĭs mŏnu**ĕrant.**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have advised.

mŏnu**ĕrŏ** mŏnu**ĕrĭs** mŏnu**ĕrĭt**; mŏnu**ĕrīmŭs** mŏnu**ĕrīt**ĭs mŏnu**ĕrint.**

PRESENT.

I may or can advise.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. moneam moneamus moneas mŏneātĭs moneat: moneaut.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should advise.

monerem mŏnērēmus moneres moneretis moneret: monerent.

Perfect.

I may have advised.

monuerim monuerimus monueris monueritis monuerit: monuerint.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have advised.

monuissem monuissemus monuisses monuissētis monuisset: monuissent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. mone, advise thou; monete, advise ye. Fut. moneto, thou shalt advise, | monetote, ye shall advise, moneto, he shall advise; monento, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monere, to advise. Pres. monens, advising. Perf. monuisse, to have advised.

of advising,

Fut. moniturus esse, to be Fut. moniturus, about to advise. about to advise.

GERUND.

Gen. monendī,

SUPINE.

Dat. monendo, for advising, Acc. monendum, advising, Acc. monitum, to advise,

Abl. monendo, by advising. Abl. monita, to advise, be advised.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

PASSIVE VOICE.

208. Moneor, I am advised.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mön**eör,** Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. monērī, monitus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

I am advised.

SINGULAR.

moncor moneris, or re monētur;

PLURAL.

monemur monemini monentur.

IMPERFECT.

I was advised.

monebar monebaris, or re monebatur;

monebamur monebaminī monebantur.

FUTURE.

I shall or will be advised.

monebor moneberis, or re monebitur:

monebimur. monebimini monebuntur.

PERFECT.

I have been or was advised.

mönitüs süm monitais es monitus est:

monity sumus monitī estis moniti sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

I had been advised.

mönit**üs érám** 1 monit**us erās** monitus erat;

monitī eramus monitī erātis monitī črant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been advised.

monit**us er**ö monitus eris monitus erit; moniti erimus monitī eritis mŏnĭtī ĕrunt.

¹ Sec 206, foot notes.

PRESENT.

I may or can be advised.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

monear monearis, or re moneatur:

moneamur moneamini moneautur.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should be advised.

mon**ērer** monereris, or re moneretur;

moneremur mŏn**ērēmĭnī** monerentur.

Perfect.

I may have been advised.

monitus sim 1 monitus sīs monitus sit;

monitī sīmus monitī sītis monitī sint.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.

monit**ŭs essem** 1 mŏnit**ŭs essēs** monitus esset:

monitī essēmus monitī essētis monitī essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised; | monemini, be ye advised.

FUT. monetor, thou shalt be advised.

vised:

monetor, he shall be ad- monentor, they shall be advised .

Infinitive.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. moneri, to be advised, Perf. monitus esse, to have been | Perf. monitus, advised, advised.

Fut. monitum IrI, to be about to be advised.

Fur. monendus, to be advised

¹ See 206, foot notes.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

209. Rego, I rule.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Supine.
rĕg ŏ,	rĕg ĕrĕ,	rexī,	rectŭ m.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

	I rulc.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
$rreve{e}greve{oldown}$	rĕg ĭmŭs	
rĕgĭs	rěg ĭtĭs	
rĕgĭt;	rěgumt.	
	Imperfect.	
	I was ruling.	
rĕg ēbăm	rĕg ēbāmŭs	
rĕg ēbās	rĕg ēbātĭs	
rĕg ēbăt ;	rĕg ēbant.	
	FUTURE.	
	I shall or will rule.	
rěg ám	rĕg ēmŭs	
rĕg ēs	rĕg ētĭs	
rĕg ĕt ;	rěg ent.	
	Perfect.	
	ruled or have ruled.	
T z91	reximus	
rex istī	rexistĭs	
rexĭt;	rez ērunt, or ē	rĕ
	PLUPERFECT.	
	I had ruled.	
rez ĕrăm	rex ĕrāmŭs	
rez ĕrās	rez ĕrātĭs	
rex ĕrăt ;	rex ĕrant.	
	FUTURE PERFECT.	
I	hall or will have ruled.	
rex ĕrŏ	rez ĕrĭmŭs	
rez ĕrĭs	rez ĕrītĭs	
rez črit ;	rez črint.	
,	-	

PRESENT.

I may or can rule.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
rĕg ăm	rĕg āmŭs
rĕg ās	rĕg ātĭs
rĕg ăt :	rěgant.
•	

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should rule.

rěg ěrěm	rĕg ĕrēmŭs
rĕg ĕrēs	rĕg ĕrētĭs
rĕg ĕrĕt ;	rĕg ĕrent.
•	

PERFECT.

I may have ruled.

rez črim	rez ĕrĭmŭs
rex ĕrĭs	rez ĕrĭtĭs
rex ĕrĭt ;	rex ĕrint.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have ruled.

rex issĕm	rexissēmus
rexissēs	rexissētīs
rexissĕt;	rexissent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. rěgě, rule thou;	rĕgĭ tĕ ,	rule yc.
Fut. rěg itő, thou shalt rule,	rěg itotě,	ye shall rule,
rěg itő, he shall rule;	rěg untŏ,	they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

	Pres.	rĕg ens ,	ruling.
-1			

Pres.	rěg ěrě,	to rule.	Pres.	rěg ens,	ruling.
PERF.	rexissĕ,	to have ruled.			
Fur.	rect ūr ŭs	essě, to be about	FUT.	recturus,	about to rule.

GERUND.

to rule.

SUPINE.

PARTICIPLE.

acn.	regentar,	of rainty,	1		
Dat.	rěg endŏ,	for ruling,			
Acc.	rĕgendŭm,	ruling,	Acc.	rectum,	to rule,
Abl.	rěg endő ,	by ruling.	Abi.	rectu.	to rule, be ruled.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

PASSIVE VOICE.

210. Regor, I am ruled.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. reg**ŏr**, Pres. Inf. rěgī, Perf. Ind. rect**ŭs sŭm.**

PLURAL, rěg**řenite**

regimimī

reguntur.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE.

I am ruled.

singular. rěg**ěr** rěg**ěrís,** *or* **rě**

regitur;

IMPERFECT.

I was ruled.

rĕg**ēbār** rĕg**ēbārĭs,** *or* **rĕ** rĕg**ēbātŭr** ; rĕg**ēbāmŭr** rĕg**ēbāmĭnī** rĕg**ēbantŭr.**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be ruled.

rĕg**ăr** rĕg**ērĭs, or rĕ** rĕg**ētŭr ;** rĕg**ēmŭr** rĕg**ēmĭnī** rĕg**entŭr.**

Perfect.

I have been or was ruled.

rectŭs sŭm ¹
rectŭs ës
rectŭs est;

rectī sumus rectī estis rectī sunt.

PLUPERFECT. I had been ruled.

rect**ŭs ĕrām** ¹ rect**ŭs ĕrās** rect**ŭs ĕrāt** :

rectī **ĕrāmŭs** rect**ī ĕrātĭs** rect**ī ĕrant.**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been ruled.

rect**ŭs črõ** ¹ rect**ŭs črĭs** rect**ŭs črĭt**; rectī **ĕrīmūs** rectī **ĕrītīs** rectī **ĕrunt.**

¹ See 206, foot notes.

PRESENT.

I may or can be ruled.

SINGULAR. rĕgăr regaris, or re regatur;

PLURAL. rĕg**āmŭr** rěg**āmĭnī** regantur.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should be ruled.

rĕg**ĕrĕr** rěg**ěrēris,** or rě rěg**ěrētůr**;

regeremur rěg**ěrēminī** regerentur.

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled.

rectus sim 1 rectŭs sīs rectus sit;

rectI simus rectī sītis rectī sint.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have been ruled.

rectŭs essem 1 rectus essēs rectus esset:

rectī essēmus rectī essētis rectī essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled; regimini, be ye ruled.

regitor, thou shalt be ruled, FUT.

regitor, he shall be ruled; reguntor, they shall be ruled.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regi, to be ruled.

Perf. rectus esset to have been Perf. rectus.

ruled.

be ruled.

FUT. rectum IrI, to be about to FUT. regendus, to be ruled.

¹ See 206, foot notes.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

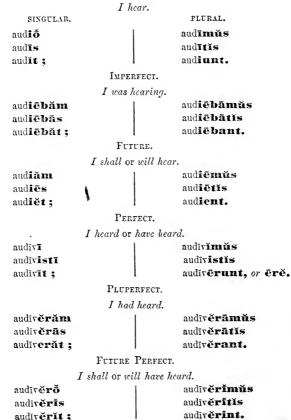
211. Audio, I hear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. audiō, audīrē, audīvī, audītum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.



PRESENT.

I may or can hear.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. audiăm. audiāmus audiās andiatis audiat: audiant. IMPERFECT. I might, could, would, or should hear. audīrem audīrēmus audīrēs audīrētis audirent. audīrēt: Perfect. I may have heard. audīvěrim audīv**ĕrīm**ŭs audīvērīs audīv**ērītīs** audīvěrit: audīvērimt. PLUPERFECT. I might, could, would, or should have heard. audīv**issēm** audīvissēmus audīv**issēs** andivissētis audīvissent. audīvissět; IMPERATIVE. Pres. audī. hear thou; laudītě, hear ye. FUT. audīto, thou shalt hear, audītotě, ye shall hear. audīto. he shall hear : audiunto, they shall hear. INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. Pres. audīrě. Pres. audiens, hearing. to hear. PERF. audīvisse, to have heard. Fur. auditurus, about to hear. Fur. audītūrus esse, to be about to hear.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. audiendi, of hearing. Dat. audiendo, for hearing. Acc. audiendum, hearing. Acc. audītum, to hear. Abl. audiendő, by hearing. Abl. audita, to hear, be heard.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PASSIVE VOICE.

212. Audior, I am heard

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. aud**iŏr.** Pres. Inf. audī**r**ī.

Perf. Ind. audīt**ŭs sŭm.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

I am heard.

SINGULAR.

audior

aud**īrīs,** or **rĕ** aud**ītŭr** ; PLURAL.

audīmŭr audīminī audiuntŭr.

IMPERFECT.

audiēbār audiēbārĭs, or rĕ

audiēbāris, or re audiēbātŭr ; audi**ēbāmŭr** aud**iēbāmĭnī** aud**iēbantŭr.**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be heard.

aud**iăr** aud**iērĭs,** *or* rŏ aud**iētŭr** ; audiēmŭr audiēmĭnī audiēntŭr.

PERFECT.

I have been heard.

audīt**ŭs sŭm ¹** audīt**ŭs čs** audīt**ŭs cst ;** audītī s**ŭmŭs** audītī estĭs audītī sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

I had been heard.

audīt**ŭs ĕrām** ¹ audīt**ŭs ĕrās** audīt**ŭs ĕrāt**; audītī **ĕrāmŭs** audītī **ĕrātĭs** audītī **ĕrant.**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been heard.

audīt**us ērš** 1 audīt**us ēris** audīt**us ērit**: audītī **ĕrīmīts** audīt**ī ĕrītīs** audīt**ī ĕrunt.**

¹ See 206, foot notes.

PRESENT.

I may or can be heard.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
audiăr	audiāmŭr
aud iār is, or rĕ	aud iāmĭnī
andiātor:	audiantŭr.

IMPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should be heard.

aud īrēr	audīrēmŭr
audīrēris, or re	aud īrēmĭnī
audīrētur;	audīrentur.

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

audīt ŭs	sĭm¹	audītī	sīmŭs
audīt ŭs	sīs	audīt ī	sītĭs
audīt ŭs	sĭt;	audīt ī	sint.

PLUPERFECT.

I might, could, would, or should have been heard.

audīt ŭs essĕm ¹	audīt ī essēm ŭs
audīt ŭs essēs	audīt ī essēt īs
audīt ŭs essět ;	audītī essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	audīrĕ,	be thou heard;	audīminī,	be ye heard.
Fur.		, thou shalt be heard,		
	audītŏr	• he shall be heard;	audiuntor,	they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīrī, to be heard. Perf. audītŭs esse, to have been	heard.
heard.	

Fur. auditum iri, to be about to be heard.

¹ See 206, foot notes.

VERBS IN IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

213. Verbs in io are generally of the fourth conjugation, and even the few which are of the third are inflected with the endings of the fourth wherever those endings have two successive vowels, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE.

214. Capio, I take.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. căpiŏ, căpĕrĕ, cēpī, captǔm.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

căpiŏ, căpĭs, căpĭt; | căpĭmŭs, căpĭtĭs, căpiunt.

IMPERFECT.

căpiēbām, -iēbās, -iēbāt; | căpiēbāmŭs, -iēbātĭs, -iēbant.

FUTURE.

căpiăm, -iēs, -iĕt; căpiēmus, -iētis, -ient.

Perfect.

cēpī, -istī, -it; | cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt, or ēre.

PLUPERFECT.

cēpĕrām, -ĕrās, -ĕrāt; cēpĕrāmus, -ĕrātīs, -ĕrant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

cēpērī, -erīt; | cēpērīmus, -erītis, -erint.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

căpiăm, -iās, -iāt ; | căpiāmŭs, -iātĭs, -iant.

IMPERFECT.

căpěrēm, -ĕrēs, ĕrět; căpěrēmus, -ĕrētis, -ĕrent.

Perfect.

cēpērīm, -ĕrīs, -ĕrīt; | cēpērīmus, -ĕrītis, -ĕrint.

PLUPERFECT.

cēpissēm, -issēs, -issēt; | cēpissēmus, -issētus, -issent.

IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. Pres. căpě; căpĭtě. căpită, FUT. căpitotě, căpită; căpiuntă. PARTICIPLE. INFINITIVE. Pres. căpěrě. Pres. căpiens. Perf. cēpissě. Fut. captūrus esse. FUT. captūrus. GERUND. SUPINE. Gen. căpiendī. Dat. căpiendă. Acc. căpiendăm. Acc. captum. Abl. căpiendă. Abl. captū.

PASSIVE VOICE.

215. Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. căpior, căpi, captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

căpior, căpĕrīs, căpĭtŭr; | căpĭmŭr, căpĭmĭnī, căpiuntŭr.

IMPERFECT.

căpiēbār, -iēbārĭs, -iēbātŭr; | căpiēbāmŭr, -iēbāmĭnī, -iēbantŭr.

FUTURE.

căpiăr, -iēris, -iētur; | căpiēmur, -iēmin, -ientur.

Perfect.

captus sum, es, est; captī sumus, estis, sunt.

Pluperfect.

captus ĕrām, ĕrās, ĕrāt; | captī ĕrāmus, ĕrātis, ĕrant.
Future Perfect.

captūs ero, erit; | captī erimus, eritis, erunt.

PRESENT.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

căpiăr, -iāris, -iātur;

căpiāmur, -iāmini, -iantur.

IMPERFECT.

căperer, -ereris, -eretur;

căperemur, -eremini, -erentur.

PERFECT.

captus sim, sīs, sit;

captī sīmus, sītis, sint.

PLUPERFECT.

captus essem, esses, esset; | captu essemus, essetus, essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. căpěrě;

căpiminī.

Fur. căpitor, căpitor;

căpiuntor.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. căpī.

Perf. captus essé. Fut. captum īrī.

PERF. captus. Fut. căpiendus.

SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION.

216. FIRST CONJUGATION.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

1. Principal Parts.

ămŏ, ămārĕ, ămāvī, ámātum.

2. Moods and Tenses.1

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
$Pres$. ăm $reve{o}$	ămĕm	ămā	ămārĕ	ămans.
Imp. ămābăm	ămārĕm			ļ
Fut. ămābŏ		ămātŏ	ămātūrŭs essě	ămātūrŭs.
Perf. ămāvī	ămāvěrĭm	1	ămāvissě	1
Plup, ămāvěrăm	āmāvissĕm	1		}
$F. \dot{P}$. ămāvěrŏ		l		t

Gerund, ămandī, do, etc. Supine, ămātum, ū.

¹ These tables, it will be observed, are so arranged as to exhibit not only the synopsis of each mood through the different tenses, as, Indic. amo, amābam, etc., but also the synopsis of each tense through the different moods, as, Pres. amo, amem, ama, etc. The pupil should make himself so familiar with the verbs, as they occur in his reading lessons, as to be able to give the synopsis of any mood through all the tenses, or of any tense through all the moods.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

ămor, ămārī, ămātus sum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE
Pres. ămŏr	ăměr	ămārĕ	ămārī	1
<i>Imp.</i> ămābăr	ămārĕr			
Fut. ămābŏr		ămātŏr	ămātŭm īrī	ămandŭs.
Perf. ămātŭs sŭm	ămātŭs sĭm		ămātus essé	ămātŭs.
Plup. ămātŭs ĕrăm	ămātŭs essĕm			
F . \hat{P} . ămātŭs ĕrŏ				

217. SECOND CONJUGATION.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

moneo, monere, monui, monitum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres.	mŏneŏ	mŏneăm	mŏnē	mŏnērĕ	mŏnens.
	mŏnēbăm	mŏnērĕm			
Fut.	mŏnēbŏ		mŏnētŏ	mŏnĭtūrŭs essĕ	mŏnĭtūrŭs.
	mŏnuī	mŏnuĕrĭm		mŏnuissĕ	
Plup.	mŏnuĕrăm	mŏnuissĕm			
F . \hat{P} :	mönnerð				

Gerund, monendī, do, etc. Supine, monitum, ū.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

moneor, moneri, monitus sum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres.	mŏneŏr	mŏneăr	mŏnērĕ	mŏnērī	
Imp.	mŏnēbăr	mŏnērĕr			
Fut.	mŏnēbŏr		mönētör	mönĭtŭm ĭrī	monendus.
Perf.	mŏnĭtŭs sŭm	monitus sim		mŏnĭtŭs essě	monitus.
Plup.	mŏnĭtŭs ĕrăm	mŏnĭtŭs essĕm			
	mŏnĭtŭs ĕrŏ				

218. THIRD CONJUGATION.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

rěgě, regěrě, rexī, rectům.

2. Moods and Tenses.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. rěgŏ	rěgăm	rěgě	rěgěrě	rĕgens.
<i>Imp.</i> rěgēbăm	rĕgĕrĕm			
Fut. rěgăm	Ü	rĕgĭtŏ	rectūr ŭs e ssĕ	rectūrus.
Pcrf. rexī	rexĕrĭm		rexissě	
Plup, rexĕrăm	rexissĕm	1]
F . \hat{P} . rexěrő]	Į.	Ì

Gerund, regendī, do, etc. Supine, rectum, ū.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

rěgör, rěgī, rectüs süm.

2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres.	rĕgŏr	rĕgăr	rěgěrě	rěgī	1
	rĕgēbăr	rĕgĕrĕr			
Fut.	rĕgăr		rĕgĭtŏr		, rĕgendŭs.
Perf.	rectŭs sŭm	rectŭs sĭm		rectŭs essě	rectŭs.
Plup.	rectus ěrám	rcctŭs essĕm			i
$F \dot{P}$	rectŭs črč				

219. VERBS IN IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

căpiō, căpĕrĕ, cēpī, captum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres. căpiŏ	căpiăm	căpě	căpĕrĕ	căpiens.
Imp. căpiēbăm Fut. căpiăm	căpĕrĕm	căpĭtŏ	captūrŭs essě	eĭptūrŭs.
Perf. cepī	cēpěrim	-	cēpissě	•
Plup. cēpěrăm F. P. cēpěră	cēpissĕm			

Gerund, căpiendī, do, etc. Supine, captum, a.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. Principal Parts.

căpior, căpī, captus sum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres.	căpiŏr	căpiăr	căpěrě	eăpī	
Imp.	căpiēbăr	căpĕrĕr			
Fut.	căpiăr		căpităr	captŭm īrī	căpiendăs.
	captŭs sŭm	captŭs sĭm		captůs essě	captus.
	captŭs ĕrăm	captŭs essěm			
$\mathbf{F}' \mathcal{D}$	aantús črč		1	1	1

220. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

audit, audīrē, audīvī, audītum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres.	audiŏ	audiăm	audī	audīrĕ	audiens.
	audiēbăm	audīrĕm			
Fut.	audiăm -		audītŏ	audītūrŭs essĕ	audītūrus.
Perf.	audīvī	audīvērīm		audīvissĕ	
Plup.	audīvěrăm	audīvissēm			
F . \hat{P} .	audīvěrŏ				

Gerund, audiendī, dŏ, etc. Supine, audītum, t.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

audior, audīrī, audītus sum.

2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres.	audiŏr	audiăr	audīrĕ	audīrī	1
	audiēbăr	audīrĕ r			
Fut.	audiăr		audītŏr	audītŭm īrī	audiendŭs.
	audītŭs sŭm			audītŭs essĕ	audītŭs.
Plup.	audītŭs ĕrăm	audītŭs essĕm			
F P	andītņa čeč				1

DEPONENT VERBS.

221. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the signification of the Active. But

1. They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles,

gerund, and supine.

2. The Future passive participle generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect passive; hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.

3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active

form is generally used.

SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

222. Hortor, I exhort.

I. PRINCÍPAL PARTS.

hortor, hortari,

hortātus sum.

II. Moods and Tenses.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres.	hortŏr ¹	hortĕr	hortārě	hortārī	hortans.
Imp.	hortābār	hortārĕr			
Fut.	hortābŏr		hortātŏr	hortātūrŭs essě	hortātūrŭs.
Perf.	hortātŭs sŭm	hortātŭs sĭm		hortātŭs essě	hortātus.
Plup.	hortātŭs ĕrăm	hortātŭsessĕm			
F . \hat{P} .	hortātŭs ĕrŏ				

Gerund, hortandī, do, etc. Supine, hortatum, ū.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

223. Vereor, I fear.

I. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

věreŏr,

věrērī,

věritus sum.

II. Moods and Tenses.

Pres. věreŏr Imp. věrēbăr	věrcăr věrcrěr	věrērě	věrērī	věrens.
Fut. věrēbŏr	1010102	věrētŏr	věrĭtūrŭs essě	{věritūrus.}
Perf. věritůs sům Plup. věritůs ěrám F. P. věritůs ěrő	věritůs sím věritůs essěm		věrĭtŭs esse	věritŭs.

Gerund, věrendī, do. Supine, věritům, ū.

¹ The tenses are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers; hortor, hortaris, hortatur, hortamin, hortanin.

All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning, I exhort, I was exhorting, etc., except the Part. in dus, which has the passive force, about to be exhorted, to be exhorted. From its passive force this Part. cannot be used in intransitive Dep. verbs, except in an impersonal sense. See 301, 2 and 3.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

224. Sequor, I follow.

I. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

sequor,

sĕquī, sĕcūtŭs sŭm.

II. Moods and Tenses.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
	sĕquŏr sĕquēbăr	sĕquăr sĕquĕrĕr	sĕquĕrĕ	sĕqu ī	sĕquens.
Fut.	sĕquăr		sĕquĭtŏr	sĕcūtūrŭs cssĕ	(sĕcūtūrŭs.) sĕquendŭs.
Plup.	sĕcūtŭs sŭm sēcūtŭs ĕrăm sĕcūtŭs ĕrŏ	sĕcūtŭs sĭm sĕcūtŭs essĕm		sĕcūtŭs essĕ	sĕcūtus.

Gerund, sequendī, do, etc. Supine, secutum, ū.

225. Patior, I suffer.

I. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

pătiŏr,

pātī, passus sum.

II. Moods and Tenses.

Pres. $Imp.$	pătiŏr pătiēbăr	pătiăr pătĕrĕr	pătěrě	pătī	pătiens.
Fut.	pătiăr	•	pătĭtŏr	passūrŭs essě	∫passūrŭs. ∫pătiendŭs.
$Perf. \\ Plup.$	passŭs sŭm passŭs ĕrăm	passŭs sĭm passŭs essĕm		passŭs essĕ	passŭs.
F . \hat{P} .	passŭs ĕrŏ	•			

Gerund, pătiendī, dŏ, etc. Supine, passum, ū.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

226. Blandiör, I flatter.

I. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

blandior,

blandīrī, blandītŭs sŭm.

II. Moods and Tenses.

Pres. $Imp.$	blandiör blandiēbär	blandiăr blandīrĕr	blandīrĕ	blandīrī	blandiens.
Fut.	blandiăr	blandifer		blandītūrŭs es-	
Perf.	blandītŭs	blandītŭs sĭm	tŏr	sě blandītŭs essě	l blandiend us blandīt us.
Plup.	sŭm blandītŭs	blandītŭs es-			
F. P.	ěrăm blandītŭs	sĕm			
	ě rŏ				

Gerund, blandiendī, do, etc. Supine, blandītum, ū.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

227. The Latin has also two Periphrastic conjugations, formed respectively from the two regular future participles combined with the various tenses of the auxiliary sum.

228. The First or Active Periphrastic conjugation, compounded of the Future Active participle and sum, expresses an intended or future action or state: amatūrus sum, I am about to love; monitūrus sum, I am about to advise.

229. The Second or Passive Periphrastic conjugation, compounded of the Future Passive participle and sum, expresses necessity or duty: amandus sum, I must be loved.

I. ACTIVE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

230. Amaturus sum, I am about to love.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	INFINITIVE.
Pres.	ămātūrŭs sŭm 1	ămātūrŭs sĭin	ămātūrŭs essě.
Imp.	ămātūrŭs ĕrăm	ămātūrŭs essĕm	
Fut.	ămātūrŭs ĕrŏ		
Perf.	ămātūrŭs fu ī	ămātūrŭs fuĕrĭm	ămātūrŭs fuissě.
Plup.	ămātūrus fuĕrăm	ămātūrŭs fuissĕm	
Fut. Perf.	ămātūrŭs fuĕrō¹		

II. Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

231. Amandus sum, I must be loved.

Pres.	ămandŭs sŭm	ămandŭs sĭm	ămandŭs esse.
Imp.	ămandŭs ĕr ă m	ămandŭs essěm	
Fut.	ămandus ĕrŏ		
Perf.	ămandús fuī	ămandŭs fuĕrĭm	ămandŭs fuissč.
Plup.	ămandŭs fuĕrăm	ămandŭs fuissĕm	
Fut. Perf	. ămandŭs fuĕrŏ		

232. The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with sum: amans est, he is loving; amatūrus est, he is about to love; amātus est, he has been loved; amandus est, he is to be loved, or must be loved. But as the Pres. Part. with sum is equivalent to the Pres. Ind. (amans est = amat), and is accordingly seldom used, and as the Perf. Part. with sum is, in the strictest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periphrastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.

233. The First Periphrastic conjugation may be formed from either transitive or intransitive verbs; the Second from transitive verbs only,

except in an impersonal sense. See 301. 2.

¹ The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: amatūrus sum, es, est. The Fut. Perf. is exceedingly rare.

² Or, I deserve (ought) to be loved.

CONTRACTIONS AND PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

234. Perfects in āvi, ēvi, īvi, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before s and r. Thus

A-i and a-e become ā: amavisti (amaisti), amasti; amavĕram (amaeram), amāram; amavisse (amaisse), amasse.

E-i and e-e become ē: nēvi (to spin), nevisti (neisti), nesti; nevērunt, (neerunt), nērunt.

I-i becomes I: audivisti (audiisti), audisti; audivissem (audiissem), audissem.

- 1. Perfects in $\bar{v}vi$ sometimes drop v in any of their forms, but generally without contraction, except before s: $aud\bar{v}vi$, audii, audiit, audie audieram; audie visti, audie ii or audisti.
- 2. Perfects in $\bar{o}vi$.—The perfect of nosco, to know, and moveo, to move, sometimes drops v and suffers contraction before r and s: novisti, nosti.
- 3. Perfects in si and xi sometimes drop is, iss, or sis: scripsisti, scripsti; dixisse, dixe; accessistis, accestis.
- 235. Erĕ for ērunt, as the ending of the third Pers. Pl. of the Perf. Ind. Act., is common in the historians.

The form in $\[\bar{e}re\]$ does not drop v. In poetry $\[\bar{e}runt\]$ occurs.

- 236. Re for ris in the ending of the second Pers. of the Pass. is rare in the Pres. Indic.
- 237. Dic, duc, fac, and fer, for dice, duce, fuce, and fire, are the Imperatives of dico, duco, facio, and fero, to say, lead, make, and bear.
 - 1. Dice, duce, and face occur in poetry.
- 2. Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of facio which change a into i: confice.
- 238. Undus and undi for endus and endi occur as the endings of the Fut. Pass. Part. and of the Gerund of Conj. III. and IV.: dicumdus from dico, to say; potiundus, from potior, to obtain.
- 239. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in
- 1. ibam for izbam, in the Imp. Ind. of Conj. IV.: scibam for scizbam. See Imp. of eo, to go, 295.
- 2. ibo, ibor, for iam, iar, in the Fut. of Conj. IV.: servibo for serviam; opperibor for opperiar. See Fut. of eo. 295.
- 3. im for am or em, in the Pres. Subj.: edim, edis, etc., for edam, as, etc.; duim (from duo, for do), for dem.—In sim, relim, nolim, malim (204 and 293), im is the common ending.

4. asso, esso, and so, in the Fut. Perf., and assim, essim, and sim, in the Perf. Subj. of Conj. I. II. III.: faxo (facso) for fecero (from facio); faxim for fecerim; ausim, for ausus sim (for auserim, from audeo). Rare examples are: levasso for levavero; prohibesso for prohibuero; capso for cepero; axo for egero; jusso for jussero; occisit for occiderit; taxis for tetigeris.

5. to and mino for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular of the Fut. Imp. Pass. and Dep.: arbitrāto, arbitrātor;

utunto for utuntor.

6. ier for i in the Pres. Pass. Infin.: amaricr for $am\bar{a}ri$; viderier for $vid\bar{e}ri$.

FORMATION OF THE VARIOUS PARTS OF THE VERB.

240. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—From an inspection of the paradigms, it will be seen, that the Principal Parts are formed in the four conjugations with the following endings:

EXAMPLES.

I.	Amo,	amāre,	amāvi,	amātum,	to love.
II.	{ 1. Deleo, 2. Moneo,	delēre, monēre,	delēvi, monui,	delëtum, monitum,	to destroy. to advise.
III.	{ 1. Carpo, 2. Acuo,	carpěre, acuěre,	carpsi, acui,	carptum, acūtum,	to pluck. to sharpen.
IV.	Audio,	audīre,	audīvi,	audītum,	to hear.

241. Entire Conjugation.—Again, from an inspection of the paradigms, it will be seen, that all the forms of any regular verb, through all the moods and tenses of both voices, arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems of forms:

¹ The forms in $\bar{e}vi$ and $\bar{e}tum$ of Conj. II. do not occur in the paradigms given above, but belong to the regular forms of those conjugations. For a fuller statement of the formation of the *Principal Parts with Exceptions*, see 246-260.

- I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises
- 1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative—Active and Passive.
 - The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive—Active and Passive.
 The Imperative—Active and Passive.

4. The Present Infinitive—Active and Passive.

5. The Present Active and Future Passive Participle.

6. The Gerund.

These parts are all formed from the Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive of the several conjugations, by dropping the endings—āre, ēre, ēre, īre of the Active, or—āri, ēri, i, īri, of the Passive: amāre, present stem, AM; monēre, MON; regere, REG; audīre, AUD.

II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the Active voice

1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.

2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

3. The Perfect Infinitive.

These parts are all formed from the Perfect Stem, found in the Perfect Indicative Active by dropping i; amāvi, perfect stem AMAV; monui, MONU.

III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises

1. The Supines in um and u, the former of which with iri

forms the Future Infinitive Passive.

2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping um: amātum, supine stem, AMAT; monitum, MONIT.

- 242. Verb Stem.—The true basis of all verbal inflections is the Verb Stem; but this is generally identical with the Present Stem. Accordingly in nearly all verbs the Present Stem is also the Verb Stem. Thus AM, the Present Stem of amo, is also its Verb Stem.
- 1. In a few verbs the Present Stem has assumed one or more letters not found in the Verb Stem. Thus in fundo, vinco, the Verb Stems are fud, vic, but the Present Stems are fund, vinc, strengthened by assuming n.

2. We add the following table of verbal inflections.

mŏn

reg

aud

-ērě;

-ĕrĕ;

-īrě;

TABLE OF

-endī.

-endī.

-iendī.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.								
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ŏ -eŏ, -ŏ -iŏ,	-ās, -ēs, -ĭs, -īs,	-ăt; -ĕt; -ĭt; -ĭt;	-āmŭs, -ēmŭs, -ĭmŭs, -īmŭs,	-ātĭs, -ētĭs, -ĭtĭs, -ītĭs,	-ant. -ent. -unt. -iunt.		
			Імре	RFECT.				
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ābăm, -ēbăm, -ēbăm, -iēbăm,	-ābās, -ēbās, -ēbās, -iēbās,	-ābăt ; -ēbăt ; -ēbăt ; -iēbăt ;	-ēbāmŭs,	-ābātĭs, -ēbātĭs, -ēbātĭs, -iēbātĭs,	-ēbant.		
	•	,	Fur	URE.				
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ābŏ, -ēbŏ, -ăm, -iăm,	-ābĭs, -ēbĭs, -ēs, - i ēs,	-ābĭt; -ēbĭt; -ĕt; -ičt;	-ābĭmŭs, -ēbĭmŭs, -ēmŭs, -iēmŭs,	-ābĭtĭs, -ēbĭtĭs, -ētĭs, -iētĭs,	-ābunt. -ēbunt. -ent. -ient.		
	Subjunctive.							
Present.								
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ĕm, -eăm, -ăm, -iăm,	-ēs, -eās, -ās, -iās,	-ĕt; -eăt; -ăt; -iăt;	-ēmŭs, -eāmŭs, -āmŭs, -iāmŭs,	-ētĭs, -eātĭs, -ātis, -iātis,	-ent. -eant. -ant. -iant.		
	,	,	•	RFECT.	,			
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ārĕm, -ērĕm, -ĕrĕm, -īrĕm,	-ārēs, -ērēs, -ĕrēs, -īrēs,	-ārět; -ērět; -ĕrět; -īrět;	-ārēmŭs, -ērēmŭs, -ĕrēmŭs, -īrēmŭs,	-ārētĭs, -ērētĭs, -ĕrētĭs, -īrētĭs,	-ārent. -ērent. -ĕrent. -īrent.		
			IMPER	ATIVE.				
	Pres			Futu	RE.			
SI	ING.	PLUR.	SING	ULAR.	PLUI	RAL.		
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ā, -ē, -ě, -ĭ,	-ātě ; -ētě ; -ĭtě ; -ītě ;	-ātŏ, -ētŏ, -ĭtŏ, -ītŏ,	-ātŏ; -ētŏ; -ĭtŏ;	-ātōtĕ, -ētōtĕ, -ĭtōtĕ, -ītōtĕ,	-antŏ. -entŏ. -untŏ. -iuntŏ.		
P_{RE}	s. Infin	VITIVE.		ARTICIPLE.	(GERUND.		
	ăm	-ārĕ;		ans;		-andī.		

-iens; Verbs in io of Conj. III. have certain endings of Conj. IV. See 213.

-ens;

-ens;

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

PASSIVE VOICE.

		INDIC	ATIVE	Моог	٠.	
			PRESENT.			
rĕg	-ŏr, -eŏr, -ŏr, -iŏr,	-āris or ārĕ, -ēris or ērĕ, -ĕris or ērĕ, -īris or īrĕ,	-ātŭr; -ētŭr; -ĭtŭr; -ītŭr;	·āmŭr, -ēmŭr, -ĭmŭr, -īmŭr,	-āmĭnī, -ēmĭnī, -ĭmĭnī, -īmĭnī,	-antŭr. -entŭr. -untŭr. -iuntŭr.
			IMPERFEC:	Γ.		
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ābăr, -ēbăr, -ēbăr, -iēbăr,	-ēbāris or ēbārĕ, -ēbāris or ēbārĕ,	-ābātŭr; -ēbātŭr; -ēbātŭr; -iēbātŭr;	-ābāmŭr, -ēbāmŭr, -ēbāmŭr, -iēbāmŭr,	-ābāmĭnī, -ēbāmĭnī, -ēbāmĭnī, -iēbāmĭnī,	-ēbantŭr.
			FUTURE.			
ăm mŏn rĕg aud	-ābŏr, -ēbŏr, -ăr, -iār,	 -āběris or āběrě, -ēběris or ēběrě, -ēris or ērě, -iēris or iērě, 	-ābĭtŭr; -ēḥĭtŭr; -ētŭr; -iētŭr;	-ābĭmŭr, -ēbĭmŭr, -ēmŭr, -iēmŭr,	-ābĭmĭnī, -ēbimĭnī, -ēmĭnī, -iēmĭnī,	-ābuntŭr. -ēbuntŭr. -entŭr. -ientŭr.
		Suв	JUNCT	IVE.		
			PRESENT.	•		
mŏn	-ĕr, -eăr, -ăr, -iăr,	-ēris or ērē, -eāris or eārē, -āris or ārē, -iāris or iārē,	-ētǔr; -eātǔr; -ātǔr; -iātǔr;	-ēmŭr, -eāmŭr, -āmŭr, -iāmŭr,	-ēminī, -eāminī, -āminī, -iāminī,	-entŭr. -eantŭr. -antŭr. -iantŭr.
			Imperfect.			
mŏn rĕg	-ērěr, -ěrěr,	-ārērĭs or ārērĕ, -ērērĭs or ērērĕ, -ĕrērĭs or ĕrērĕ, -īrērĭs or īrērĕ,		-ārēmŭr, -ērēmŭr, -ērēmŭr, -īrēmŭr,	-ērēmīnī, -ĕrēmīnī,	-ārentŭr. -ērentŭr. -ĕrentŭr. -īrentŭr.
		Імр	ERATI	VE.		
	Prese	NT.		Fr	TURE.	
S	ING.	PLUR.	SIN	GULAR.	PLURA	L.
	-ārě, n -ērě, -ěrě, l -īrě,	-āmĭnī ; -ēmĭnī ; -ĭmĭnī ; -īmĭnī ;	-ātŏr -ētŏr -ītŏr -ītŏr	, -ētŏr; , -ĭtŏr;	_	-antŏr. -entŏr. -untŏr. -iuntŏr.

Pres. Infinitive.

FUT. PARTICIPLE. ăm -ārī; -andŭs. mŏn -ērī; -endŭs. rĕg -ī; -endŭs. aud -īrī: -iendus.

ămāt mŏnĭt

rect audīt -ūrŭs essĕ.

TABLE OF

-ŭm, -ū.

PERFECT SYSTEM.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PERFECT.

			I LIVI L			
ămāv mŏnu rex audīv	•ī,	-istī,	-ĭt ;	-ĭmŭs,	-istĭs,	-ērunt, -ēre.
			PLUPERF	ECT.		
ămāv mŏnu rex audīv	-ĕrăm,	-ĕrās,	-ĕrăt;	-ĕrāmŭs,	-ĕrātĭs,	-ĕrant.
]	FUTURE PI	ERFECT.		
ămāv mŏnu rex audīv	-ĕrŏ,	-ĕrĭs,	-ĕrĭt;	-ĕrīmŭs,	-ĕr i tĭs,	-ĕrint.
		Sυ	BJUN	CTIVE.		
			Perfe	CT.		
ămāv mŏnu rex audīv	-ĕrĭm,	-ĕr i s,		-ĕıimŭs,	-ĕr i tĭs,	-ĕrint.
udari			PLUPER	FECT.		
ămāv mŏnu rex audīv	-issĕm,	-issēs,	-issĕt;	-issēmŭs,	-issētĭs,	-issent.
Infinitive Perfect.						
ămāv mŏnu rex audīv	-issĕ.					
		Sur	INE S	SYSTEM	•	
Infin	ITIVE FU	r.	Part. F	'UT.		SUPINE.

-ūrŭs.

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

SUPINE SYSTEM.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perfect

			Perfe	CT.			
ămāt -ŭs 1 mŏnĭt -ŭs rect -ŭs audīt -ŭs	sŭm,	ĕs,	est;	sŭmŭs,	estĭs,	sunt.	
			PLUPERE	ECT.			
ămāt -ŭs mŏnĭt -ŭs rect -ŭs audīt -ŭs	ĕrăm,	ĕrās,	ĕrăt;	ĕrāmŭs,	ĕrātĭs,	ĕrant.	
		F	UTURE PE	RFECT.			
ămāt -ŭs mŏnĭt -ŭs rect -ŭs audīt -ŭs	ĕrŏ,	ěrĭs,	ĕrĭt;	ĕrĭmŭs,	ĕrĭtĭs,	ĕrunt.	
		Sv	BJUNC	TIVE.			
			Perfe	777		*	
ămāt -ŭs			ILMIL	.1.			
mŏnĭt -ŭs rect -ŭs audīt -ŭs	sĭm,	sīs,	sĭt;	sīmŭs,	sītĭs,	sint.	
			PLUPERF	ECT.			
ămāt -ŭs mŏnĭt -ŭs rect -ŭs audit -ŭs	essěm,			essė̃mŭs,	essētĭs,	essent.	
	Infinitive Perfect.						
ămāt -ŭs mŏnĭt -ŭs rect -ŭs audīt -ŭs	essě.			•			
INFINITIV	E FUT.			P	ART, PERF		
ămāt mŏnĭt rect	-ŭm īrī.				-ŭs.		

¹ In the plural, -us becomes -i: -i sumus, etc.

audīt

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

- 243. The Four Conjugations, it will be seen from this table, differ from each other only in the formation of the *Principal Parts* and in the endings of the *Present System*.
 - 244. But by a close analysis it will be found
- 1. That even these differences in a great measure disappear, and that the four conjugations become only varieties of one general system of conjugation.
- 2. That these varieties have been produced by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of endings.
 - 245. According to this analysis
- 1. The stems in the four conjugations end in the following letters:
 - I. II. III. IV. a, e, consonant or u, i.
 - 2. The general endings are
 - 1) For Principal Parts:

o, ĕre, si (i), vi, tum.

- 2) For Other Parts:—the endings given above for the third conjugation, but in the Future, bo and bor are regular endings as well as am and ar, and in the Infinitive Passive, ĕri as well as i.
- 3. The manner in which these endings unite with the different stems may be seen in the following

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

I.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Ama\text{-}o \\ \text{Amo,}^2 \end{array} \right.$	<i>ama-ĕre</i> amāre,	<i>ama-vi</i> amāvi,	ama-tum amātum.
II.	{ Moneo,	mone-ĕre monēre,	{ mone-vi mon-vi monui,	mone-tum ³ mon-tum monĭtum. ⁴
III.	{ <i>Reg-o</i> { Rego,	<i>reg-ëre</i> regëre,	reg-si	reg- tum $rectum$.
IV.	{ Audi-o { Audio,	<i>audi-ĕre</i> audīre,	<i>audi-vi</i> audīvi,	<i>audi-tum</i> audītum.

¹ Rarely o.

² By contraction: ama-o = amo.

³ Like deleo, delere, delevi, deletum. See 240. II.

⁴ For changes see 247. 1.

PRESENT SYSTEM .- Active Voice.1

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

I.	II.	III.	IV.
1 \ \ ama-o	mone-o	reg-o	audi-o
amo (amo	moneo	rego	audio
2. \ ama-is	mone-is	reg-is	audi-is
~~ { amās	monēs	regis	audīs
3, \ ama-it	mone-it	reg-it	audi- it
amat	monet	regit	audit
1. $\begin{cases} ama-ĭmus \\ amāmus \end{cases}$	mone-ĭmus	reg-ĭmus	audi-ĭmus
1. amāmus	monēmus	regimus	audīmus
2. \ ama-ĭtis	mone-ĭtis	reg-ĭtis	audi-ĭtis
2. (amātis	monētis	regitis	audītis
3. \ ama-unt	mone-unt	reg-unt	audi-unt
o. amant.	monent.	regunt.	audiunt.

IMPERFECT.

ama-ēbam	mone-ēbam	reg-čbam	audi-ēbam
amābam.	monēbam.	regēbam.	audiēbam.

FUTURE.

ama-ebo	mone-ebo	reg-am	audi-am
amābo.	monēbo.	regam.	audiam.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

	2 101	DELIVE.	
ama-am amem.²	mone-am moneam.	reg-am regam.	audi-am audiam.
	Імри	RFECT.	
<i>ama-ĕrem</i> amārem	mone-ĕrem monērem.	reg-ĕrem regĕrem.	audi-črem audīrem.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

S. \ ama-e	mone-e	reg-e	1 audi-e
ama	mone	rege	audi
P. $\begin{cases} ama-ĭte \\ amāte. \end{cases}$	mone-ite monēte.	reg-ĭte regite.	audi-ite

¹ The Passive has the same changes as the Λctive: ama-or = amor; ama-èris = amāris; mone-èris = monīris; audi-èris = audīris, etc.

² A changed to e, so throughout; ama-as = ames, etc.

FUTURE.

		10101		
2 S.	∫ <i>ama-ĭto</i> } amāto	mone-ĭto monēto	reg-ito	audi-ito
3 S.	∫ <i>ama-ĭto</i> } amāto	mone-ĭto monēto	reg-ĭto regito	audi-ĭto audīto
2 P.	∫ <i>ama-ĭtōte</i> } amatōte	mone-ĭtōte monētōte	reg-itōte regitōte	audi-ĭtöte audītōte
3 P.	\(\ama-unto \) amanto.	mone-unto monento.	reg-unto regunto.	audi-unto audiunto.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.

			audi-ĕre audīre.
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PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

ama-ens	mone-ens	reg-ens	audi-ens
amans.	monens.	regens.	audiens.

GERUND.

ama-endi	mone-endi	reg-endi	audi-endi
amandi.	monendi.	regendi.	audiendi.

FORMATION OF PRINCIPAL PARTS.

246. The general rule for obtaining these forms has already been given (240), but as they are the basis of all verbal inflections, a fuller treatment of the subject is desirable. We notice

I. Regular Formations.

II. Irregular Formations.

I. REGULAR FORMATIONS.

247. The Principal Parts of verbs in the four conjugations are formed with the following endings:

		āre,	āvi,	ātum.
II	$\begin{cases} 1. & In \\ eo, \end{cases}$	a few verbs: ēre, most verbs: ēre,	ēvi,	ētum.
			ui,	ĭtum.
III. <	1. In o,	consonant ster ĕre, rowel stems: ĕre,	ns:	tum.
	$\begin{bmatrix} 2. & In \\ 0, \end{bmatrix}$	řowei siems:	i,	tum.
IV.	io,	īre,	īvi,	ītum.

¹ For examples, see 240.

- 1. The Endings ui and itum are only shortened forms of $\cdot \hat{e}vi$ and $\hat{e}tum$: thus the full forms in moneo would be, $mon\hat{e}vi$, $mon\hat{e}tum$; by dropping e, we have monvi, montum; but to facilitate pronunciation, the consonant v after n is changed into its corresponding vowel u; monui (for monvi), and the two successive consonants in montum are separated by a short i; monitum (for montum).
- 2. ANALYSIS OF ENDINGS.—If we analyze the endings of the Perfect, we shall find that the final i is the ending of the first person, the preceding v the tense-sign of the Perfect, and the preceding vowel the characteristic of the conjugation. In the ending si, s is the tense-sign, while in the ending i the tense-sign is wanting.
- 3. The Supine Ending is properly tum~(245.2), as the preceding vowels, \vec{a} , \vec{c} , and \vec{c} , are the characteristics of the conjugation, and \vec{c} in Conj. III. is the connecting vowel. Practically, however, it is more convenient and simple to treat these vowels as a part of the endings.

Euphonic Changes in the Regular Formation.

248. Before si and tum in the Principal Parts of the Third Conjugation, certain euphonic changes take place.

I. Before si of the Perfect.

- 1. A k-sound (c, g, qu) or h^1 generally ² unites with the s and forms $x: ^3$ $d\bar{u}co$, duxi (ducsi); $r\bar{e}go$, rexi (regsi); $c\bar{o}quo$, coxi (coqusi); $tr\bar{u}ho$, traxi (trahsi).
- 2. A t-sound (d, t) is generally dropped: ' claudo , clausi (claudsi); mitto , $\mathit{m\bar{\imath}si}$ (mittsi).
 - 3. B is changed to p: scrībo, scripsi (scribsi).
- 4. **M** is sometimes assimilated and sometimes strengthened with p: $pr\center{e}mo$, pressi (premsi); $s\cente{a}mo$, sumpsi (sumsi).
 - 5. R is sometimes assimilated: gero, gessi (gersi).

II. Before tum of the Supine.

- 1. A **k-sound** (c, g, qu) or **h**° becomes c: rĕgo, rectum (regtum); cĕquo, coctum (coqutum); trăho, tractum (trahtum).
 - 2. **B** becomes p, as in the perfect: scribo, scriptum (scribtum).
 - 3. **M** is strengthened with $p: {}^{6}$ $s\bar{u}mo$, sumptum (sumtum).
 - 4. N is often dropped: vinco, victum (vinctum). See 242. 253. 2.
 - 5. R sometimes becomes s: gĕro, gestum (gertum).

 $^{^{1}}$ Sometimes also gu or v: exstinguo, exstinxi; viro, vixi.

 $^{{\}bf ^2}$ But is sometimes dropped : $mergo,\,mersi$ (for $mergsi,\,merxi$): $parco,\,parsi.$

³ Fluo, fluxi, and struo, struxi, form their perfects in xi as if from a stem in a k-sound.

⁴ Sometimes assimilated: cedo, cessi (cedsi).

⁵ Sometimes also qu or v: exstinguo, exstinctum; vivo, victum. But v is often changed into its corresponding yowel u: solvo, solūtum (solvtum).

⁶ But dropped in rumpo, ruptum (rumptum).

II. IRREGULAR FORMATIONS.

I. Present Indicative.

- 249. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in **io**, **ior**, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. These are
 - 1. The following with their compounds:

 $C\check{a}pio$, to take; $c\check{u}pio$, to desire; $f\check{a}cio$, to make; $f\check{o}dio$, to dig; $f\check{u}gio$, to flee; $j\check{a}cio$, to throw; $p\check{a}rio$, to bear; 1 $qu\check{a}tio$, to shake; $r\check{a}pio$, to seize; $s\check{a}pio$, to be wise.

- 2. The compounds of the obsolete lăcio, to entice, and specio, to look;
- allicio, elicio, illicio, pellicio, etc.; aspicio, conspicio, etc.
- 3. The Deponent Verbs: gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer.

II. Present Infinitive.

250. Do, dăre, to give, is irregular in having ăre, instead of āre.

III. Perfect Indicative Active.

- 251. The Perfect presents three distinct Irregularities.
- 252. First Irregularity.—Formation after the Analogy of other conjugations.—A few verbs in each conjugation form the Perfect according to the analogy of one or more of the other conjugations:

Sŏno, sonāre, sonui (2d), to sound.
Augeo, augēre, auxi (augsi, 3d), to increase.
Pĕto, petĕre, petīvi (4th), to seek.
Vincio, vincīre, vinxi (vincsi, 3d), to bind.

- 1. Explanation.—Sŏno, it will be observed, though a verb of the first conjugation, forms its perfect in ui, after the analogy of the second; augeo, of the second, forms its perfect in si (xi = gsi) after the analogy of the third; $p\breve{e}to$, of the third, follows the analogy of the fourth, and vincio, of the fourth, the analogy of the third. Strictly speaking, such verbs are partly of one conjugation and partly of another, but they are generally classed with the conjugation to which the infinitive belongs.
- 2. In the First Conjugation, a few verbs 2 follow the analogy of the Second: domo, domāre, domui, to tame.
- 3. In the Second, a few 2 follow the analogy of the Third: augeo, augère, auxi (augsi), to increase.

¹ Compounds are of the fourth conjugation.

² For lists, see under Classification of Verbs, 261, sqq.

4. In the Third, a few follow the analogy of the First, Second, or Fourth: sterno, sterněre, strávi (1), to strew; frěmo, freměre, fremui (2), to rage; pěto, petere, petivi (4), to seek.

5. In the Fourth, a few follow the analogy of the Second or Third:

ăpěrio, aperīre, aperui (2), to open; vincio, vincīre, vinxi (3), to bind.

253. Second Irregularity.—Stem-vowel lengthened.—A few verbs in each conjugation form the Perfect in i, but lengthen the stem-vowel:

Jŭvo,	jŭvāre,	jūvi,	to assist.
Video,	vĭdēre,	vīdi,	to see.
Edo,	ĕdĕre,	ēdi,	to eat.
Věnio,	venīre,	vēni,	to $come$.

1. Vowel Changed.—The stem-vowels & and (in compounds) i often

become \bar{e} : $f\check{a}cio$, $f\check{e}ci$, to make; effeci, to effect.

2. M or N Dropped.—The Present Stem in a few of these verbs is strengthened by the insertion of M or N, which disappears in the Perfect: rumpo, $r\bar{u}pi$ (rumpi), to break; rinco, $r\bar{i}ci$ (vinci), to conquer. See 242.1.

254. Third Irregularity.—Reduplication.—A few verbs of the First, Second, and Third conjugations form the Perfect in i, but reduplicate the stem:

Do, dăre, dědi, to gire.
Mordeo, mordēre, mŏmordi, to bite.
Curro, currěre, cŭcurri, to run.

1. The REDUPLICATION consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with e_i —generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is e_i , i, o, or u, otherwise with e_i see examples above.

2. Vowel Changed.—The stem-vowel is often changed: cado, cecidi (for

cecădi), to fall.

- N Dropped.—N is sometimes dropped, because it does not belong to the Verb Stem, but has been inserted in the Present: tundo, tutudi, to beat.
- 4. REDUPLICATION WITH Sp or St.—In verbs beginning with sp or st, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops the s: spondeo, spopondi (for spospondi), to promise; sto, stěti (for stesti), to stand.
- 5. In Compounds of do, to give; sto, to stand; disco, to learn; posco, to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of curro, to run; re-spondeo, respondi (redup. dropped), to answer; circum-do, circum-dedi (redup. retained); circum-sto, circum-steti, to encircle. The compounds of do which are of the third conjugation change e of the reduplication into i: ad-do, ad-didi (for ad-didi), to add.

IV. Supine.

255. The Supine presents two principal Irregularities.

256. First Irregularity.—Formation after the Analogy of other conjugations.—A few verbs in each conjugation

form the Supine according to the analogy of one or more of the other conjugations:

sonui, Sŏno. sonāre. sonitum (2d). to sound. Augeo, augēre, auxi, auctum (3d), to increase. Pěto, petěre, petīvi, petitum (4th), to seek. Vincio, vincīre, vinxi. vinctum (3d), to bind.

- 1. In the First Conjugation, a few verbs 1 follow the analogy of the Second or Third: domo, domare, domui, domitum (2d), to tame; seco, secare, secui (2d), sectum (3d), to cut.
- 2. In the Second, a few follow the analogy of the Third: augeo, augère, auxi, auctum, to increase.
- 3. In the Third, a few follow the analogy of the Second or Fourth: fremo, fremere, fremui, fremetum (2d), to rage; căpio, cupëre, cupīvi, cupītum (4th), to desire.
- 4. In the Fourth, a few follow the analogy of the Third: věnio, venīre, vēni, ventum, to come.
- 257. Second Irregularity.—Ending Sum.—Some verbs of the Second conjugation, many in the Third, and a very few in the Fourth form the Supine in sum:

Măneo, manëre, mansi, mansum, to remain. Claudo, claudere, clausi, clausum, to close. Sentio, sentire, sensi, sensum, to perceive.

- 1. Euphonic Changes are the same in supines in sum as in perfects in si (248. I.): claudo, clausi, clausum (248. I. 2); mergo, mersi, mersum (248. I. 1), to merge; flecto, flexi (for flecsi, for flectsi, 248. I. 1 and 2), flexum (for flecsum, for flectsum, 248. I. 1 and 2), to turn.
- 2. In the FOURTH CONJUGATION, only raucio, to be hourse, and sentio, to perceive, with its compounds, have sum.
- 258. The several modes above described for the formation of the Perfect and Supine may be presented for convenience of reference in the following table:

FORMATION OF THE PERFECT AND SUPINE.

I. Perfect.

1. REGULAR PERFECT.

Conj. I.	Conj. II.	Conj. III.	Conj. IV.
ā vi .	ēvi. ui.	si. i.	ĩ vi .

2. IRREGULAR PERFECT.

First Irregularity.

analogy of	analog			nalogy of	analogy of
Conj. II.	Conj.	III.	Conj	. I., II. or IV.	Conj. II. or III.

sum.

Second Irregularity.

Conj. III. Coni. L. Coni. II. Conj. IV. stem-vowel stem-vowel stem-vowel stem-vowel lengthened. lengthened. lengthened (and lengthened. often changed). Third Irregularity. reduplication. reduplication. | reduplication. II. SUPINE. REGULAR SUPINE. ētum. ātum. tum. ītum. ĭtum. 2. IRREGULAR SUPINE. First Irregularity. analogy of analogy of analogy of analogy of Conj. II. or IV. Conj. II. or III. Conj. III. Conj. III.

PRINCIPAL PARTS IN COMPOUND VERBS.

Second Irregularity.

sum.

sum.

259. I. Compound verbs generally form their principal parts like simple verbs:

monēre, monui, monitum, Ad-mŏneo, admonitum, admonēre, admonui, to admonish.

260. II. But compounds of verbs with dissyllabic supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts:

1. When the Present of the compound has i for e of

the simple verb:

1) The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e: Rĕgo, regĕre, rexi. rectum, to rule. Di-rigo, dirigĕre, direxi. directum, to direct.

2) But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e: Těneo, tenēre, tenui, tentum, to hold. De-tineo, detinere, detinui. detentum, to detain.

When the Present of the compound has i for a of

the simple verb:

1) The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect and the supine takes e, sometimes a: Căpio. capěre, cēpi, captum, to take. Ac-cipio, accipěre, acceptum, to accept.

accepi,

2) But sometimes the Perfect retains i and the Supine takes e:

Răpio, rapere, rapui, raptum, to seize. Di-ripio, diripere, diripui, direptum, to tear asunder.

For Reduplication in compounds, see 254. 5; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

According to the Perfect-Formation.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

CLASS I. REGULAR FORMATION.

261. Principal Parts in: o, āre, āvi, ātum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation: the following are examples:

Amo, ămāre, Cūro, curāre, Dōno, donāre, Hābīto, habitāre, Hŏnōro, honorāre, Lībēro, liberāre, Nomīno, nomināre, Pugno, pugnāre, Spēro, sperāre, Vōco, vocāre,	amāvi, curāvi, donāvi, habitāvi, honorāvi, liberāvi, nomināvi, pugnāvi, sperāvi, vocāvi,	amātum, curātum, donātum, habitātum, honorātum, liberātum, nominātum, pugnātum, sperātum, vocātum,	to love. to care for. to bestow. to dwell. to honor. to free. to name. to fight. to hope. to call.
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CLASS II. IRREGULAR FORMATION.2—Three Irregularities.

262. First Irregularity.—Perfect (and generally Supine) after the Analogy of the Second Conjugation.

Principal Parts in: o, āre, ui, ĭtum (generally).

Crĕpo,	crepāre,	erepui,	crepĭtum,	to creak.
Incrépa	o, āre, ui (āvi)	, ĭtum, (ātum);	discrepo, āre, ui (āvi)
Cŭbo, Dŏmo, Enĕco,	cubāre, domāre, enecāre,	cubui, domui, enčcui,	cubĭtum, domĭtum, enectum,	to recline. to tame. to kill.

¹ The Perfect-Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less important and can be readily associated with this formation.

² The lists contain all the simple verbs which belong to this class and such compounds as deviate in any important particular from their simple verbs.

3 Compounds which insert m, as accumbo, etc., are of Conj. III. See 276. II. 1.
4 The simple néco is regular, and even in the compound the forms in dvi and atum occur.

Frĭco,	fricāre,	fricui,	frictum, fricātum,	to rub.
Mĭco,	micāre,	micui,		to $glitter.$
Dim	řco, āre, āri (ui),	ātum; emīco,	āre, ui, ātum.	
Plĭco,	plicāre,	{ plicui, { plicāvi,	{ plicĭtum, { plicātum,	to fold.
Dup	ľíce, multiplíce,	replico, and sug	pplico are regular: d	ire, āvi, ātum.
Sĕco,	secāre,	secui,	sectum,	to cut.
Part	iciple, secatūrus.			
Sŏno,	sonāre,	sonui,	sonĭtum,	to sound.
Part nā	iciple, sonatūrus vi.	Most compo	urds want Sup. Re	sono has Perf. reso-
Tŏno, Vĕto,	tonāre, vetāre,		(tonĭtum), vetĭtum,	to thunder. to forbid.
2. Th	e Passive Partic active in significa	iples <i>coenātus</i> a	also pōtum in the sup and jurātus (coeno, ined, etc. Pōtus, fro	oine. to dine, and <i>jūro</i> , to un <i>pōto</i> , is also some-
263 Vowel.	S. Second I	rregularity	.—Perfect ler	ngthens Stem-
Prin	cipal Parts	in: o, āre	, i, tum.	
		·		4

Juvo, juvāre, jūvi, jūtum, to assist.

Participle juratūrus, but in compounds jutūrus is also used.

Lăvo, lavāre, lāvi, { lautum, lotum, to wash. lavātum,

In poetry this is sometimes of Conj. III.: lavo, lavère, lavi, etc.

264. Third Irregularity.—Perfect Reduplicated. Principal Parts in: o, āre, i, tum.

Do, dăre, dědi, dătum, to give. Sto, stāre, stěti, stātum, to stand.

In do the characteristic is short by exception: dâbam, dâbo, dârem, etc.
 Four compounds of do, circumdo, pessumdo, satisdo and venumdo, are conjugated like the simple verb; the rest are dissyllable and of the third Conj. (250).

 Compounds of sto are conjugated like the simple verb, if the first part is a dissyllable, otherwise they take stiti for steti: adsto, adstare, adstiti, adstatum. Disto wants Perf. and Sup.

265. Deponent Verbs.

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular. Thus,

Conor,	conāri,	conātus sum,	to endeavor
Hortor,	hortāri,	hortātus sum,	to exhort.
Mīror,	mirāri,	mirātus sum,	to admire.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

CLASS I. REGULAR FORMATION.

266. Principal Parts in: { II. eo, ēre, ēvi, ētum.¹ II. eo, ēre, ui, ĭtum. III. eo, ēre, ui, tum or sum.

I. eo, ēre, ē**vi**, ētu**m**.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

Compleo, complere, complevi, completum, to fill.

So other compounds of pleo; as expleo, impleo.

Dēleo,	delēre,	delēvi,	delētum,	to destroy.
Fleo,	flēre,	flēvi,	flētum,	to weep.
Neo,	nēre,	nēvi,	nētum,	to spin.

 Abôleo, abolère, abolèri, abolètum, to destroy, is compounded of ab and oleo (not used). The other compounds of oleo generally end in esco, and are of the third conjugation. See abôlesco, 276. II. 1.

2. Vieo, viêre, viêtum, to weave, bend, is rare, except in the participle viêtus.

II. eo, ēre, ui, ĭtum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

Căreo,	carere,	carui,	carĭtum,	to be without.
Dēbeo,	debēre,	debui,	debĭtum,	to owe.
Hăbeo,	habēre,	habui,	habĭtum,	to have.
Mŏneo,	monēre,	monui,	monitum,	to advise.
Nŏceo,	nocēre,	nocui,	nocitum,	to hurt.
Pāreo,	parēre,	parui,	paritum, 🍙	to obey.
Plăceo,	placēre,	placui,	placitum	to please.
Tăceo,	tacēre,	tacui,	taeĭtum,	to be silent.

III. eo, ēre, ui, tum or sum.

These endings, slightly irregular in the Supine, belong to the following verbs:

Censeo, censere, censui, censum, to think.

Perf. Part. census and censitus.—Percenseo wants Sup.; recenseo has recensum and reconsitum.

Dŏceo, docēre, docui, doctum, to teach.

Misceo, miscēre, miscui, mistum, to mix.

Těneo, tenēre, tenui, tentum, to hold.

Defineo, $\bar{e}re, ui, detentum$; so obtineo and retineo; other compounds seldom have Sup.

Torreo, torrere, torrui, tostum, to roast.

¹ We class $\tilde{\epsilon}ri$ and $\tilde{\epsilon}tum$, though belonging to but few verbs, with the regular formations, because they are the full and original forms from which the more common ui and $\tilde{\epsilon}tum$ are derived. See 247. 1.

267. Supine Wanting.—Many verbs, regular in the Perfect, want the Supine: the following are the most important:

Aceo, to be sour. Calleo, to be skilled. Candeo, to shine. Egeo, to want. Emineo, to stand forth. Flöreo, to bloom. Frondeo, to bear leaves. Horreo, to shudder. Lăteo, to be hid.

Mădeo, to be wet. Niteo, to shine. Oleo, to smell. Palleo, to be pale. Păteo, to be open. Rigeo, to be stiff. Rubeo, to be red. Sileo, to be silent. Sorbeo, to swallow. Sordeo, to be sordid. Splendeo, to shine. Studeo, to study. Stupeo, to be amazed Timeo, to fear. Torpeo, to be torpid. Tumeo, to swell. Vigeo, to flourish. Vireo, to be green.

268. Perfect and Supine Wanting.—Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Perfect and Supine: the following are the most important:

Albeo, to be white. Aveo, to covet. Calveo, to be bald. Cāneo, to be gray. Flaveo, to be yellow. Foeteo, to be fetid.

Langueo,

Lĭqueo,

Lūceo,

Lūgeo,

Hěbeo, to be blunt. Hūmeo, to be moist. Immineo, to threaten. Lacteo, to suck. Liveo, to be livid. Maereo, to be sad.

Polleo, to be powerful. Renideo, to shine. Scateo, to gush forth. Squaleo, to be filthy. Vegeo, to be lively.

to be languid.

to be liquid.

to shine.

to mourn.

to remain.

to caress.

IRREGULAR FORMATION.—Three Irregularities. Class II.

269. First Irregularity.—Perfect in si (rarely i) after the Analogy of the Third Conjugation:

Principal Parts in: eo, ēre, si (i), tum or sum.

Algeo,	algēre,	alsi,		to be cold.
Ardeo,	ardēre,	arsi,	arsum,	to $burn$.
Augeo,	augēre,	auxi (gsi),	auctum,	to increase.
Connīveo,	connīvēre.	connīvi,		to wink at.
Ferveo,	fervēre,	fervi, ferbui,		to boil.
Frīgeo,	frigēre,	frixi (rare),		to be cold.
Fulgeo,	fulgēre,	fulsi,		to shine.
Poetic fu	lgo, fulgëre, etc.			
Haereo,	haerēre,	haesi,	haesum,	to stick.
Indulgeo,	indulgēre,	indulsi,	indultum,	to indulge.
Jŭbeo,	jubēre,	jussi, .	jussum,	to order.

lugēre, Măneo, manēre, mansi, Mulceo, mulsi, mulcere,

Compounds have mulsum or mulctum.

languēre,

liquēre,

lucēre,

Mulgeo, mulgēre, mulsi. mulsum, to milk. Prandeo. prandēre, prandi, pransum, to dine.

langui,

luxi,

luxi,

liqui (licui),

mansum.

mulsum,

Participle, pransus, in an active sense, having dined.

Rīdeo,	rīdēre,	rīsi,	rīsum,	to laugh.
Strīdeo,	strīdēre,	strīdi,		to creak.
Suādeo,	suadēre,	suāsi,	suasum,	to advise. to wipe.
Tergeo,	tergēre,	tersi,	tersum,	

Tergo, of Conj. III., also occurs: tergo, ère, si, sum.

Torqueo,	torquēre,	torsi,	tortum,	to twist.
Turgeo,	turgēre,	tursi (rare),		to $swell.$
Urgeo (urgueo)) urgēre,	ursi,	 ·	to press.

Cieo, cière, civi, citum, to arouse, has a kindred form, cio, cire, civi, citum, from which it seems to have obtained its perfect. In compounds the forms of the fourth Conj. prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.
 For Euphonic Changes before si in the Perfect, see 248. I.

270. Second Irregularity.—Perfect lengthens Stem-Vowel.

Principal Parts in: eo, ēre, i, tum (sum).

Căveo,	cavēre,	eāvi,	cautum,	to beware.
Făveo,	favēre,	fāvi,	fautum,	to favor.
Fŏveo,	fovere,	fōvi,	fötum,	to cherish.
Moveo,	movēre,	mōvi,	mōtum,	to move.
Păveo,	pavēre,	pāvi,		to $fcar.$
Sědeo,	sedēre,	sēdi,	sessum,	to sit.

So circumsédeo and supersédeo. Other compounds thus: assideo, ère, assèdi, assessum; but dissideo, praesideo, and resideo want Supine.

Vĭdeo,	vĭdēre,	vīdi,	vīsum,	to see.
Vŏveo,	vovēre,	vōvi,	võtum,	to vow.

271. Third Irregularity.—Perfect Reduplicated.

Principal Parts in: eo, ēre, i, sum.

Mordeo,	mordēre,	mŏmordi,	morsum,	to bite.
Pendeo,	pendere,	pěpendi,	pensum,	to hang.
Spondeo,	spondēre,	spopondi,	sponsum,	to promise.
Tondeo,	tondēre,	tŏtondi,	tonsum,	to shear.
		_ '		

For reduplication in compounds, see 254. 5.

272. Deponent Verbs.

1. Regular.

		•	
Liceor, Mĕreor, Polliceor, Tueor, Vĕreor,	licēri, merēri, pollicēri, tuēri, verēri,	licītus sum, merītus sum, pollicītus sum, tuītus sum, verītus sum,	to bid. to descrve. to promise. to protect. to fear.
		2. Irregular.	
		•	

2. Irregular.					
Făteor, Mědeor,	fatēri, medēri,	fassus sum,	to confess. ¹ to cure.		

¹ Confiteor, ēri, confessus; so profiteor

miserītus sum, misertus sum, miserēri, to pity. Mĭsĕreor, to think. rēri, rătus sum, Reor,

3. Semi-Deponent.—Deponent in the Perfect.

ausus sum, Audeo, audēre, to dare. gavisus sum, Gaudeo, gaudēre, to rejoice. solitus sum, to be accustomed. Sŏleo, solēre,

THIRD CONJUGATION.

CLASS I. REGULAR FORMATION IN THE PERFECT.

273. Principal Parts in: { I. o (io), ĕre, si, tum. II. o, ĕre, i, tum. III. o, ĕre, si or i, sum.

I. o (io), ĕre, si, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a consonant; the following are examples: 1

Carpo,	carpĕre,	carpsi,	carptum,	to pluck.
Cingo,	cingěre,	cinxi(gsi),	cinctum,	to gird.
Cōmo,	coměre,	compsi,	comptum,	to adorn.
Dēmo,	deměre,	dempsi,	demptum,	to take away.
Dīco,	dicĕre,	dixi,	dictum,	to say.
Dūco,	ducĕre,	duxi,	ductum,	to lead.
Fingo,	fingĕre,	finxi,	fictum,	to feign.
Gĕro,	gerĕre,	gessi,	gestum,	to carry.
Nūbo,	nuběre,	nupsi,	nuptum,	to marry.
Pingo,	pingěre,	pinxi,	pictum,	to paint.
Prōmo,	proměre,	prompsi,	promptum,	to bring out.
Rěgo,	regěre,	rexi,	rectum,	to rule.
Scalpo,	scalpěre,	scalpsi,	scalptum,	to engrave.
Sūmo,	suměre,	sumpsi,	sumptum,	to take.
Trăho,	trahěre,	traxi,	tractum,	to draw.
Uro,	ūrěre,	ussi,	ustum,	to burn.
Věho,	vehěre,	vexi,	vectum,	to carry.
Vīvo,	vivěre,	vixi,	victum,	to live.

Change of Stem Vowel in Compounds; see 260.
 Carpo: de-cerpo, decerpere, decerpsi, decerptum, to pluck off.

Rejo: di-rigo, dirigère, direxi, directum (200. I.), to direct.

Here decerpo, though it has not the same stem-vowel as the simple carpo, forms its principal parts precisely like the simple verb; but dirigo changes the stem-vowel in forming those parts, having i in the Pres. and e in the Perf.

2. Compounds of Obsolete Simple Verbs present the same vowel changes: Lăcio (obs.): al-licio, allicere, allexi, allectum (260. II.), to allure. So illicio, pellicio. For elicio, see 276. II.
Specio (obs.): a-spicio, aspicere, aspectum, to look at.

¹ For Euphonic Changes, see 248.

Acuo,

Evādo,

Figo,

Findo,

Flecto.

II. o, ĕre, i, tum

These are the regular endings of verbs whose stems end in \boldsymbol{u} ; the following are examples:

acūtum,

to sharpen.

to evade.

to fasten. to part.

to bend.

evāsum,

fixum,

fissum,

flexum,

acui,

ăcuĕre,

Arguo,	arguĕre,	argui,	argūtum,	to convict.
Coargu	o and <i>redarguo</i> wa	nt the Supine.		
Minuo,	imbučre, minuěre, ruěre,		minūtum,	to imbue. to diminish. to fall.
Part. ru	itūrus.—Corruo ai	nd <i>irruo</i> want Su	ıp.	
Stătuo,	statuĕre,	stătui,	statūtum,	$to\ place.$
Compou	ands change a into	i: constituo.		
	tribuĕre,			
1. Perf	ect xi.—The follo	owing in uo for	m the Perf. in	xi.
Cŏquo, Exstinguo,	coquĕre, exstinguĕre,	coxi, exstin x i,	coctum, exstinctum,	to cook. to extinguish.
So other	r compounds of stin	guo (rare): dist	inguo, etc.	
	fluĕre, struĕre,	struxi,	fluxum, structum,	
2. Like	verbs in uo are t	he following:		
Too	īcoro	ែរ	ictum.	to strike.
Ico, Solvo, Volvo,	solvěre, volvěre,	solvi, volvi,	ictum, solūtum,¹ volūtum,¹	to loose. to roll.
	īcĕre, solvĕre, volvĕre, III. o , ĕ			to roll.
	III. o, ĕ endings, slightl	re, si	r i, sur	to roll.
These of following v	III. o, ĕ endings, slightl	re, si o	or i, sur the Supine,	to roll. n.² belong to the
These of following v	III. o, ĕ endings, slightly erbs:	re, si o	the Supine,	to roll. n.² belong to the to kindle.
These of following v Accendo, So other Cedo, Claudo,	III. o, ĕ endings, slightly erbs: accendĕre, compounds of can cedĕre, claudĕre,	re, si o y irregular in accendi, odo (obsolete): in cessi, clausi,	the Supine, accensum, accendo, succendo cessum, clausum,	to roll. n.² belong to the to kindle. to yield.
These of following v Accendo, So other Cedo, Claudo, Compou	III. o, & endings, slightly erbs: accendere, compounds of can cedere, claudere, and have u for au:	re, si c y irregular in accendi, do (obsolete): in cessi, clausi, conclūdo, caclū	the Supine, accensum, accendo, succendo cessum, clausum, do.	to roll. n.² belong to the to kindle. to yield. to close.
These of following v Accendo, So other Cedo, Claudo, Compou	III. o, ĕ endings, slightly erbs: accendĕre, compounds of can cedĕre, claudĕre,	re, si c y irregular in accendi, do (obsolete): in cessi, clausi, conclūdo, caclū	the Supine, accensum, accendo, succendo cessum, clausum, do.	to roll. n.² belong to the to kindle. to yield. to close.
These of following v Accendo, So other Cedo, Claudo, Compou Cūdo, Dēfendo,	III. o, & endings, slightly erbs: accendere, compounds of can cedere, claudere, and have u for au:	re, si o y irregular in accendi, do (obsolete): in cessi, clausi, conclūdo, exclū eūdi, defendi,	the Supine, accensum, accensum, accendo, succendo cessum, clausum, do. cūsum, defensum,	to roll. n.² belong to the to kindle. to yield. to close.

fidi (findi),

evāsi,

fixi,

flexi,

evaděre,

So other compounds of vado, 275.

figĕre,

finděre,

flectěre,

¹ V is here changed to its corresponding vowel u: rolutum for rolutum.

² For euphonic changes before sum, see 257. 1.

	-		_	
Fluo,	fluĕre,	fluxi,	fluxum,	to flow.
Frendo,	frenděre,		frēsum, fressum,	to gnash.
Laedo,	laedĕre,	laesi,	laesum,	to hurt.
Compound	s have i for ae:	illīdo, etc.		
Lūdo, Màndo, Mergo, Mitto,	luděre, manděre, mergěre, mittěre,	lūsi, mandi, mersi, mīsi, (nexi,	lūsum, mansum, mersum, missum,	to play. to chew. to dip. to send.
Necto,	nectěre,	nexui,1	nexum,	to bind.
Pando,	panděre,	panui,	passum,	to open.
Pecto,	pectěre,	pexi,	pexum, (pinsĭtum,	to comb.
Pinso (pīso),	pinsĕre,	{ pinsui,	pistum, pinsum,	to pound.
Plecto,	plectěre, plauděre,	plexi,	plexum,	to plait.
Plaudo,	- ,	plausi,	plausum,	to applaud.
		ounds have o for		
Prěhendo,	,	prehendi,	prehensum,	to grasp.
	en, prendo, pre			
Prěmo,				
Quătio,	preměre, quatěre,	pressi, quassi,	quassum (248.	I. 4), to press. I. 2), to shake.
Quătio, Compound	quatĕre,		quassum (248.	1. 4), to press. I. 2), to shake.
Quătio,	quatĕre,	quassi,	quassum (248.	to shave. to gnaw. to climb.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando,	quatěre, s have cu for que raděre, roděre, scanděre,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi,	quassum (248, rāsum, rōsum, scansum,	I. 2), to shake. to shave. to gnaw.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando,	quatěre, s have cu for que raděre, roděre, scanděre,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi,	quassum (248, rāsum, rōsum, scansum,	I. 2), to shake. to shave. to gnaw.
Quătio, Compound Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound Scindo, Spargo,	quatere, s have cu for qua radere, rodere, scandere, s have e for a: e scindere, spargere,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, ascendo, descendo	quassum (248, rāsum, rōsum, seansum, o. seissum, sparsum,	I. 2), to shake. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend.
Quătio, Compound Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound Scindo, Spargo,	quatere, s have cu for qua radere, rodere, scandere, s have e for a: e scindere, spargere,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, ascendo, descendo scădi, sparsi,	quassum (248, rāsum, rōsum, seansum, o. seissum, sparsum,	I. 2), to shake. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound: Scindo, Spargo, Compound: Tergo,	quatere, s have cu for quatere, radere, rodere, scandere, s have e for a: a scindere, spargere, s generally have tergere,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, scendo, descendo scidi, sparsi, e for a: aspergo	quassum (248. rāsum, rōsum, scansum, o. scissum, sparsum, o, respergo. tersum,	to shave. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend. to scatter.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound: Scindo, Spargo, Compound: Tergo,	quatere, s have cu for quatere, radere, rodere, scandere, s have e for a: a scindere, spargere, s generally have tergere,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, scendo, descendo scidi, sparsi, e for a: aspergo tersi,	rāsum, rōsum, seansum, o. seissum, sparsum, , respergo. tersum, take this form.	to shave. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend. to scatter.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound: Scindo, Spargo, Compound: Tergo, Also tergeo: Trūdo, Vello, Compound:	quatere, s have cu for quatere, radere, radere, scandere, scandere, seindere, spargere, s generally have tergere, o, tergere (Conj. trudere, vellere, s in good use gen	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, ascendo, descendo scădi, sparsi, e for a: aspergo tersi, II.); compounds trūsi,	rāsum, rōsum, scansum, scansum, scissum, sparsum, respergo. tersum, take this form. trūsum, vulsum,	to shave. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend. to scatter. to wipe off. to thrust.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound: Scindo, Spargo, Compound: Tergo, Also tergeo: Trūdo, Vello, Compound: Verro,	quatere, s have cu for quatere, rodere, scandere, scandere, scindere, spargere, s generally have tergere, o, tergere (Conj. trudere, vellere, s in good use gen verrere, vertere,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, ascendo, descendo scidi, sparsi, e for a: aspergo tersi, II.); compounds trūsi, velli (vulsi), serally have relli. verri, verti,	rāsum, rōsum, scansum, scansum, scissum, sparsum, a, respergo. tersum, take this form. trūsum, vulsum, versum,	to shave. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend. to scatter. to wipe off. to thrust. to pluck. to brush. to turn.
Quătio, Compound: Rādo, Rōdo, Scando, Compound: Scindo, Spargo, Compound: Tergo, Also tergeo: Trūdo, Vello, Compound: Verro,	quatere, s have cu for quatere, rodere, scandere, scandere, scindere, spargere, s generally have tergere, o, tergere (Conj. trudere, vellere, s in good use gen verrere, vertere,	quassi, a: concătio, etc. rāsi, rōsi, scandi, ascendo, descendo scădi, sparsi, e for a: aspergo tersi, II.); compounds trūsi, velli (vulsi), acrally have relli.	rāsum, rōsum, scansum, scansum, scissum, sparsum, a, respergo. tersum, take this form. trūsum, vulsum, versum,	to shave. to shave. to gnaw. to climb. to rend. to scatter. to wipe off. to thrust. to pluck. to brush. to turn.

¹ Compounds take this form in the Perfect.

Ango, ĕre, anxi, to strangle. Annuo, ĕre, i, to assent.

So other compounds of nuo, but abnuo, has Part. abnuitūrus.

Bătuo, ĕre, i, to beat.
Bībo, ĕre, i, to drink.
Congruo, ĕre, i, to agree.
Ingruo, ĕre, i, to assail.
Lambo, ĕre, i, to lick.

Luo, ěre, i, to wash.

Part. luitūrus. Compounds—abluo, alluo, etc. have Sup. lūtum.

Mětuo, ěre, i, to fear.

Ningo, ĕre, ninxi, to snow. Nuo, obs.; see annuo.

Pluo, ĕre, i or vi, to rain. Psallo, ĕre, i, to play on a stringed

instrument. Sīdo, ĕre, i, to sit down.

Perf. and Sup. generally supplied from sédeo; hence sédi, sessum. So in compounds.

Strīdo, ĕre, i, to creak.

Also strīdeo, ēre (Conj. II.). Sternuo, ēre, i, to sneeze.

275. Perfect and Supine Wanting.—Some verbs want both Perfect and Supine.

1. The following:

Clango, to clang.
Claudo, to be lame.
Glisco, to grow.
Hisco, to gape.
Stinguo, to quench;

but distinguo, čre, distinxi, distinctum; so exstinguo. Temno, to despise; but tempsi, contemptum. Vādo, to go. See evādo, 273. III. Vergo, to incline.

nguo, to quench; contemno, ere, con
2. Many Inceptives. See 281. II. 1.

CLASS II. IRREGULAR FORMATION.—Three Irregularities.1

276. First Irregularity.—Perfect after the Analogy of other Conjugations.

I. Perfect in āvi, as in Conjugation I.

Invěterasco, inveterascěre, Pasco, pascěre, Sterno, sterněre, Větěrasco, veterascěre, inveterāvi, pāvi, strāvi, veterāvi, inveterātum, pastum, strātum, to grow old. to feed. to strew. to grow old.

II. Perfect in evi, ui, as in Conjugation II.

1. The following:

Abòlesco, abolescère, abolèvi, abolitum, to disappear. So inólesco; but adólesco has Supine adultum; exólesco, exolètum; obsólesco, obsoletum.

Accumbo, accumbere, accubui, accubitum, to recline. So other compounds of cumbo, cubo. See cubo, 262.

¹ For convenience of reference a General List of all verbs involving irregularities will be found on page 323.

Alo,	ălĕre,	alui,	∫ alĭtum, } altum,	to nourish.
Cello, obsolete. Cerno, Colo, Compesco, Consŭlo, Cresco,	See excello bel cerněre colěre, compescěre, consulěre, crescere,	ow. crēvi, colui, compescu consului, crēvi,		to decide. to cultivate. to restrain. to consult. to grow.
Incresco a	nd <i>succresco</i> want	Supine.		
Cumbo for cub	o, in compound	s: see accu		
Depso,	depsĕre,	depsui,	∫ depsĭtum, } depstum,	to knead.
Elĭcio,	ēlicĕre,	elicui,	elicĭtum,	to elicit.
Other com	pounds of <i>lăcio</i> , th	nus: allĭcio,	ěre, allexi, allectur	n.
Excello,	excellěre,	excellui (rare),	to excel.
Other comp	pounds of <i>cello</i> wa	nt Perf. and	Sup., except percello	, percellěre, per •
Frĕmo, Fŭro, Gĕmo, Gigno,	freměre, furěre, geměre, gigněre,	fremui, furui, gemui, gĕnui (f	fremĭtum, ————————————————————————————————————	to rage. to rage. to groan, to beget.
Lacio, obsolete.		1 1	10.	,
Lĭno, Mĕto, Mŏlo,	liněre, metěre, molěre,	lēvi, līvi, messui, molui,	lĭtum, messum, molĭtum,	to smear. to reap. to grind.
Necto,	nectěre,	nexui,	nexum,	to bind.
Occulo, Olesco, obsolete	occulĕre, . See abŏlesco.	occului,	occultum,	to hide.
Pinso,	pinsĕre,	{ pinsui, pinsi,	f pinsĭtum, pistum, pinsum,	to crush.
Pōno, Quiesco, Răpio,	poněre, quiescěre, rapěre,	posui, quiēvi, rapui,	positum, quiētum, raptum,	to place. to rest. to snatch.
Compounds	s thus: corripio, c	orripěre, co	rripui, correptum.	
Sĕro, Sĕro,	serĕre, serĕre,	serui, sēvi,	sertum, sătum,	to connect. to sow.
Compounds	s thus: consero, er	e, consēvi, c	onsitum.	
Sperno, Sterto, Strěpo, Suesco, Texo, Trěmo, Vŏmo,	stertěre, s strepěre, s suescěre, s texěre, t treměre, t	sprēvi, stertui, strepui, suēvi, sexui, sremui, romui,	sprētum, to spu to snor strepĭtum, to mak suētum, to beco textum, to veau to trem vomĭtum, to vom	re. e a noise. me accustomed. re. ble.

2. Many Inceptives in esco form the Perfect in ui from their primitives. See 281. I. 2.

III. Perfect in ivi, as in Conjugation IV.

1. The following:

Arcesso,	arcessère,	arcessīvi,	arcessītum,	to call for. to lay hold of. to desire.
Căpesso,	capessère,	capessīvi,	capessītum,	
Cŭpio,	cupère,	cupīvi,	cupītum,	
Făcesso,	facessĕre,	{ facessīvi, } facessi,	facessītum,	to make.
Incesso,	incessĕre,	incessīvi or -ces	si, ——	to attack.
Lăcesso,	lacessĕre,	lacessīvi,	lacessītum,	to provoke.
Lino,	liněre,	līvi <i>or</i> lēvi,	litum,	to smear,
Pěto,	petěre,	petīvi,	petītum,	to ask.
Quaero,	quaerěre,	quaesīvi,	quaesītum,	to seek.

Compounds thus: acquiro, ere, acquisīvi, acquisītum.

Rŭdo,	ruděre,	rudīvi,	rudītum,	to $bray$.
Săpio,	sapěre,	sapīvi, sapui,		to taste.

Compounds have i for a, as restpio. Destpio wants Perf. and Sup.

Sino,	sinere,	sīvī,	situm,	to permit.
Těro,	terěre,	trīvi,	trītum,	to rub.

 Λ few Inchoatives in isco form the Perfect in ivi from their primitives. See 281. I. 2.

277. Perfect in \bar{o} **vi.**—Nosco and its compounds form the perfect in \bar{o} vi after the analogy of \bar{a} vi, \bar{e} vi, and \bar{v} vi:

Nosco, noscěre, novi, notum, to know.

So ignosco.—Agnosco and cognosco have itum in Sup., agnitum; dignosco and internosco want Supine.

278. Vowel Conjugation.—Nosco, verbs in uo, and regular verbe of the first, second, and fourth conjugations form a complete vowel-conjugation, whose Perfects and Supines in the full form are entirely analogous, as follows:

279. Second Irregularity.—Perfect lengthens Stem-Vowel. See 253, 1 and 2.

Ago, ăgĕre, ēgi, actum, to drive.

So circumāgo and pērāgo; satāgo wants Perf. and Sup. Other compounds change a into i in the Pres.: abīgo, ĕre, abēgi, abactum; but coīgo becomes cōgo, ĕre, coēgi, coactum, and dēīgo, dēgo, ĕre, dēgi, without Sup. Prodīgo wants Sup, and ambīgo, Perf. and Sup.

Căpio, capěre, cēpi, captum, to take.
So antecăpio; other compounds thus: accipio, ēre, accēpi, acceptum.

Edo. ěděre, ēdi. ēsum. to cat. ēmi, emptum, to buy. Emo, ěměre. So coëmo; other compounds thus: adimo, ere, ademi, ademptum. fēci. factum. to make. Făcio. facĕre, Passive irregular: fio, fiéri, factus sum. See 294. So satisfacio and compounds of facio with verbs, but compounds with prepositions thus: conficio, conficere, confeci, confectum, with regular Pass. conficior, confici, confectus sum. - Compounds of facio with nouns and adjectives are of Coni. I.: significo, are, avi, atum. Fŏdio. foděre. fēdi. fossum. to dia. Frango, frangěre, frēgi, fractum, to break. Compounds thus: confringo, ěre, confrēgi, confractum. Fŭgio, fugěre. fūgi, fugĭtum, to flee. Fundo, funděre, fūdi, fusum, to pour. Jăcio. jēci, jactum, to throw. jacĕre, Superjacio has juctum or jectum in Sup.; other compounds thus: abjicio, ere, abjēci, abjectum, Lěgo, legěre, lēgi, lectum, to read. So compounds, except (1) colligo, ere, collegi, collectum; so deligo, eligo, seligo,-(2) diligo, ere, dilexi, dilectum; so intelligo, negligo. Linguo, linguĕre. līgui. to leave. Compounds with Sup.: relinguo, ere, reliqui, relictum. Rumpo. to burst. rumpëre. rūpi, ruptum, Scăbo, scaběre, scābi, to scratch. Vinco, victum, vincĕre. vīci. to conquer. 280. Third Irregularity.—Perfect Reduplicated. See 254. 1-5. Abdo. abdĭdi. abděre. abdĭtum. to hide. So all compounds of do, except those of Conj. I. (264): addo, condo, crêdo, dedo, edo, indo, obdo, perdo, prodo, reddo, trado, rendo; but abs-condo generally drops reduplication: abs-condi. cĕcĭdi. Cădo. caděre. cāsum, to fall. Incido, ere, incidi, incasum; so occido and recido; other compounds want supine. Caedo, caeděre. cěcidi, caesum. to cut. Compounds thus: concido, ère, concidi, concisum. Căno. caněre. cčeĭni, eantum. to sing. Concino, ere, concinui, ---; so cerino and praecino; other compounds want Perf. and Sup.

credĭdi,

eredĭtum.1

to believe.

credĕre.

Crēdo,

¹ Explained as compound of do; see abdo.

Curro,	currěre,	eŭcurri,	cursum,	to run.
	and <i>praecurro</i> compounds gene		the reduplication, ea	ccăcurri, praecă.
Disco, Do, Conj. I.	discĕre, See abdo.	dĭdĭei,		to learn.
Fallo,	fallĕre,	fĕfelli,	falsum,	to deceive.
Refello,	<i>ěre, refelli,</i> witl	aout Supine.		
Pango,	pangĕre,	pĕpĭgi,	pactum,	to bargain.
Pango,	pangĕre,	∫ panxi, } pēgi,	{ panctum, { pactum,	to fix in.
	go, <i>ĕre</i> , compê o, Perf. and Sup		so also impingo.	Depango wants
Parco,	parcĕre,	pĕrperei (pa	ırsi), parsum,	to spare.
	rco, ĕre, compar reparco want F		also with e for a: a	comperco, ěre, etc.
Părio,	parĕre,	pěpěri,	partum,	to bring forth.
Particip.	le paritūrus; o	compounds are of	Conj. IV.	
Pello,	pellěre,	pěpůli,	pulsum,1	to drive.
Pendo,	penděre,	pěpendi,	pensum,	to weigh.
Posco,	poseĕre,	pŏposci,	² '	to demand
Pungo,	pungëre,	pŭpŭgi,	punctum,	to prick.
Compou	nds thus: comp	oungo, ěre, comp	unxi, compunctum	
Sisto,	sistĕre,	stĭti,	stătum,	to place.
			to, and forms the Pe constiti, constitum	
Tango,	tangĕre,	tětĭgi,	tactum,	to touch.
	nds thus: attin	go, čre, attigi, a	tactum.	
			ftentum,	444.7.
Tendo,	tenděre,	tĕtendi,	tensum,	to stretch.
Compon	nds drop redupl	ication and prefe	tensum, Sup., tentum, but detendo have both for	letendo and osten-
Compon	nds drop redupl	ication and prefe	tensum, Sup., tentum, but detendo have both for	letendo and osten-
Compon do have tensur Tollo,	nds drop redupl n; and extende	ication and prefer to, protendo and r tětůli (obs. sustůli,	tensum, Sup., tentum, but detendo have both for	letendo and osten- rms.
Compon do have tensur Tollo,	nds drop redupl n; and extende tollere,	ication and prefer, protendo and r { tětŭli (obs.) sustŭli, Perf. and Sup.	tensum, Sup., tentum, but detendo have both for	letendo and osten- rms.
Compon do have tensus Tollo, Attollo a	nds drop redupl n; and extende tollere, and extollo want tundere,	ication and prefer c, protendo and r { tětůli (obs. } sustůli, Perf. and Sup. tůtůdi,	(tensum, sup., tentum, but detende have both for), sublatum, (tunsum,	letendo and osten- rms. to raise. to beat.

² Compounds retain reduplication, 254. 5.

³ Explained as compound of do; see abdo.

281. Inceptives.

Inceptives end in sco, and denote the beginning of an action. When formed from verbs, they are called Verbal Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

I. Verbal Inceptives.

1. Most verbal inceptives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives.

The following are examples:

Acesco	(aceo),	acescĕre,	acui,	 to become sour.
Aresco	(areo),	arescěre,	arui,	 to become dry.
Călesco	(căleo),	calescĕre,	calui,	 to become warm.
Flöresco	(floreo),	florescěre,	florui,	 to begin to bloom.
Mădesco	(mădeo),	madescěre,	madui,	 to become moist.
Těpesco	(těpeo),	tepescěre,	těpui,	 to become warm.
Viresco	(vireo),	virescěre,	virui,	 to become green.

2. The following take the Perfect and Supine of their primitives:

Coălesco Concúpisco Convălesco Exardesco Invětěrasco Obdormisco Rěvīvisco	(ab, oleo), (con, alo), (con, cupio), (con, valeo), (ex, ardeo), (invětěro), (ob, dormio), (re, vīvo),	ěre, ěre, ěre, ěre, ěre, ěre,	coălui, concupivi, convălui, exarsi, inveterāvi, obdormīvi, revixi,	revictum,	to fall asleep. to revive.
Revivisce	(re, vīvo),	ěre,	revixi,	revictum,	to revive.
Scisco,	(scio),	ěre,	scīvi,	scītum,	to enact.

3. The following are Inceptives only in form:

Cresco,	crescěre,	crēvi,	crētum,	to grow.
Fătisco,	fatiscĕre,			to gape.
Glisco,	gliscěre,			to swell.
Nosco,	noscěre,	nōvi,	nūtum,	to know.
Pasco,	pascěre,	pāvi,	pastum,	to feed.
Quiesco,	quiescĕre,	quiēvi,	quietum,	to be quiet.
Suesco,	sucscěre,	suēvi,	suētum,	to be accustomed.

II. Denominative Inceptives.

1. Most denominative inceptives want both Perfect and Supine. Thus

Ditesco (dives),	to grow rich.	Puěrasco (puer),	to grow mild.
Dulcesco (dulcis),	to become sweet.		to grow soft.
Grandesco (grandis),	to grow large.		to become a boy.
Grăvesco (grăvis),		Piuguesco (pinguis),	

2. The following have the Perfect in ui:

Dūresco (durus), ere, dūrui, to become hard.	rēbresco (ūresco (to become frequent. to become hard.
--	------------------------	-------------------------------------

¹ So inolesco; but adolesco has Sup. adultum; exolesco, exoletum; obsolesco, obsoletum.

Evānesco Innōtesco Macresco Mātūresco	(e, vanus), (in, notus), (macer), (matūrus),	ĕre, ĕre, ĕre,	ēvāņui, innotui, macrui, mātūrui,	to vanish. to become known. to become lean. to ripen.
Mātūresco	(maturus),	ěre,	māturui,	to ripen.
Nigresco Obmūtesco	(niger), (ob, mūtus),	ěre, ěre,	nig r ui, obmūtui,	to become black. to grow dumb.
Obsurdesco Recrudesco	(ob, surdus), (re, crūdus),	ěre, ěre,	obsurdui, recrūdui,	to become deaf. to bleed afresh.
Vilesco	(vilis),	ěre,	vīlui,	to become worthless.

	282	. Deponent Verbs.	
Amplector,	i,	amplexus sum,	to embrace.
		cumplector.	
Apiscor,	i,	aptus sum,	to obtain.
		tus sum, so indipiscor.	
Comminiscor,	i,	commentus sum,	to devise.
Reminisc	or wants	Perf.	
Expergiscor,	i,	experrectus sum,	to awake.
Fătiscor,	i,		to gape.
Defěli sco	r, i, defes	ssus sum.	
Fruor,	frui,	fructus sum,	to enjoy.
,		fruĭtus sum,	to enjog.
Part. fru			
Fungor,	i,	functus sum, gressus sum,	to perform.
Grădior,	i,	gressus sum,	to walk.
Compoun	ds thus:	aggrědior, i, aggressus sum.	
Irascor,	i,		to be angry.
Lābor,	i,	lapsus sum,	to fall.
Līquor,	i,	-	to melt.
Lŏquor,	. i,	locūtus sum,	to speak.
Miniscor, obsol	lete; sec	comminiscor.	, 7.
Morior,	1 (111,	rare), mortuus sum,	to dic.
Part. mor			
Nanciscor,	i,	nactus (nanctus) sum,	
Nascor,	i,	nātus sum,	to be born.
Part. nas	citūrus.		
Nītor,	i,	f nīsus sum,	to strive.
Oblīviscor,	•	nixus sum, oblītus sum,	to forget.
Păciscor,	i, i,	pactus sum,	to forget. to bargain
Pătior,	i,	passus sum,	to suffer.
•	•	essus sum.	
Proficiscor,	i,	cp.; see amplector. profectus sum,	to set out.
Quěror,	i,	questus sum,	to complain.
Rěminiscor,	i,	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	to remember.
Ringor,	i,		to growl.
Sĕquor,	i,	secūtus sum,	to follow.
			-

Tuor, antiquated form for tucor, 272. 1.
Ulciscor, i, ultus sum, to avenge.
Utor, i, ūsus sum, to usc.
Vertor; see devertor, praevertor, revertor, 273. III.
Vescor, i, to cat.

Semi-Deponent.

Fīdo, fiděre, fīsus sum, to trust.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

Class I. Regular Formation.

283. Principal Parts in: io, ire, ivi, itum.

The following are examples:

Audio, Condio, Finio, Lenio, Mūnio, Pūnio, Scio, Sepelio, Sitio,	audīre, condīre, finīre, lenīre, munīre, punīre, scīre, sepelīre, sitīre,	audīvi, condīvi, finīvi, lenīvi, munīvi, punīvi, scēvi, sepelīvi, sitīvi,	audītum, condītum, finītum, lenītum, munītum, punītum, scitum, sepultum,	to hear. to season. to finish. to alleviate. to fortify. to punish. to know. to bury. to thirst.
Vāgio,	vagire,	vagivi,		to cry.

1. Perfect in ii for īvi.—V is often dropped in the ending of the Perfect; audii for audivi. See 234. 1.

2. Perfect and Supine Wanting.—Desideratives (332. III.), except esurio, ire, —, itum; nupturio, ire, ivi, and parturio, ire, ivi, want both Perf. and Sup. Also a few others:

to bark. Balbūtio, to stammer. Gannio, Singultio, to sob. Caecutio, to be blind. Superbio, to be proud. Ineptio, to trifle. Fěrio, to strike. Sāgio, to be wise. Tussio, to cough. Fěrocio, to be fierce.

Class II. Irregular Formation.—Two Irregularities.

284. First Irregularity.—Perfect after the Analogy of the Second and Third Conjugations.

I. Perfect in ui, as in Conjugation II.

Principal Parts in: io, īre, ui, tum.

Amĭcio, Apĕrio,	ămicīre, ăpĕrīre,	(amicui ²), aperui,	amietum,	to clothe. to open.3
Opěrio,	ŏperīre,	operui,	opertum,	to cover.3
Sălio,	salīre,	salui (ii),	(saltum),	to leap.

Compounds thus: desilio, īre, ui (ii), (desultum).

¹ Supine irregular. ² Probably not in actual use. ³ From pario of Conj. IIL

II. Perfect in si (i), as in Conjugation III.

Principal Parts in: io, īre, si (i), tum (sum).

			,
comperīre,	compěri,	compertum,	to learn.1
farcīre,	farsi,	{ fartum, { faretum,	to stuff.
nds thus: confere	io, īre, confersi,	confertum.	
fulcīre,	fulsi,	fultum,	to prop.
haurīre,	hausi,	haustum, hausum	
raucīre,	rausi,	rausum,	to be hoarse,
reperīre,	repěri,	repertum,	to find.1
saneīre,	sanxi,	∫ sancītum, } sanctum,	to ratify.
sarcire,	sarsi,	sartum,	to patch.
sentīre,	sensi,	sensum,2	to feel.
sepīre,	sepsi,	septum,	to hedge in.
vincīre,	vinxi,	vinctum,	to bind.
	fareire, ads thus: conferc fuleire, haurire, raucire, reperire, sancire, sarcire, sentire, sepire,	fareīre, farsi, ads thus: confercio, īre, confersi, fulcīre, fulsi, haurīre, hausi, raucīre, rausi, reperīre, repěri, sancīre, sanxi, sarcire, sarsi, sentīre, sensi, sepīre, sepsi,	fareire, farsi, { fartum, { faretum, } } ds thus: confercio, ire, confersi, confertum. fulcire, fulsi, fultum, haurire, hausi, haustum, hausum, raucire, rausi, reperire, reperi, repertum, { sancire, sanxi, { sancitum, sanctum, sanctum, santum, sentire, sensi, sensum, septire, sepsi, septum, } fartum, { fartum, faretum, susum, rulum, sanctum, sanctum, sanctum, sanctum, sentire, sensi, sensum, septum,

285. Second Irregularity.—Perfect lengthens Stem-Vowel.

Věnio, venire, veni, ventum, to come. So compounds: advenio, convenio, devenio, invenio, obvenio, pervenio, etc.

286. Deponent Verbs.

1. Regular.

Blandior,	īri,	blandītus sum,	to flatter.
Largior,	īri,	largītus sum,	to bestow.
Mentior,	īri,	mentītus sum,	to lie.
Molior,	īri,	molītus sum,	to strive.
Partior,	īri,	partītus sum,	to divide.
Impertio	r, īri, imper	tītus sum ; so dispertior.	
Pŏtier,	īri,	potītus sum,3	to obtain.
Sortior,	īri,	sortītus sum,	to draw lots.
	2	. Irregular.	
Assentior,	īri,	assensus sum,4	to assent.
Experior,	īri,	expertus sum,5	to try.
Metior,	īri,	mensus sum,	to measure.
Oppěrior,	īri,	opperitus sum, opperitus sum,	to await.
Ordior,	īri,	orsus sum,	$to\ begin.$
Orior,	īri,	ortus sum,	to rise.

Part. oritarus.—Pres. Ind. of Conj. III., orëris, oritur. Imp. Subj., orirer or orirer.—So compounds, but adorior follows Conj. IV.

¹ From părio of Conj. III.

² Comp. assentio has a deponent form, assentior. See 286. 2.

³ In the Pres. Ind. and Imp. Subj., forms of Conj. IIL occur.

⁴ Compounded of ad and sentio. See sentio, 284. II.

⁵ Compounded of ex and pario; ob and pario. See comperio, 284. II.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

287. A few verbs which have unusual personal endings, are called by way of preëminence *Irregular* or *Anomalous Verbs*. They are

Sum, edo, fero, volo, fio, eo, queo, and their compounds.

288. Sum, I am.

The conjugation of sum has been already given (204.); its numerous compounds—absum, adsum, dēsum, praesum, etc.—except possum and prosum, are conjugated in the same way.

289. Possum, *I am able*.

possum,

potuěrím,

-eris,

-ĕrĭt;

pŏtuī.

	INDICATIVE.						
			PRESENT.				
possŭm,	pŏtĕs,	pŏtest;	possŭmŭs,	pŏtestĭs,	possunt.		
IMPERFECT.							
pŏtĕrăm,	-ĕrās,	-ĕrăt;	pŏtĕrāmŭs,	-ĕrātĭs,	-ērant.		
			FUTURE.				
pŏtĕrŏ,	-ĕrĭs,	-ĕrĭt;	pŏtĕrĭmŭs,	-ĕrĭtĭs,	-ĕrunt.		
			Perfect.				
pŏtuī,	-istī,	-ĭt;	pŏtuĭmus,	-istĭs,	-ērunt or ērě.		
	PLUPERFECT.						
pŏtuĕräm,	-ĕrās,	-ĕrăt;	pŏtuĕrāmŭs,	-ĕrātĭs,	-ĕrant.		
		Fut	URE PERFECT.				
pŏtuĕrŏ,	-ĕrī̇̀s,	-ĕrĭt;	pŏtuĕrī̇̃mŭs,	-ĕrītĭs,	-ĕrint.		
SUBJUNCTIVE.							
Present.							
possĭm,	possis,	possit;	possīmŭs,	possītĭs,	possint.		
		1	MPERFECT.				
possĕm,	possēs,	possĕt;	possēm ŭs ,	possētĭs,	possent.		

Perfect.

pŏtuĕrīmŭs,

-ĕrītĭs,

-ĕrint.

¹ Absum and praesum, like possum, have Pres. Participles, absens and praesens.

PLUPERFECT.

potuissem, -isses, -isset; potuissemus, -issetis, -issent.

IMPERATIVE. - Wanting.

INFINITIVE.

FdX

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. possě. Pres. pŏtens (as an adjective). Perf. pŏtuissě.

- Composition.—Possum is compounded of pötis, able, and sum, to be. The
 parts are sometimes separated, and then potis is indeclinable: pötis sum, pötis
 sümus, etc.
 - 2. IRREGULARITIES.—In possum observe
- That potis drops is and that t final of the stem is assimilated before s: possum for potsum.
 - 2) That f of the simple is dropped after t: potui for potfui.

ădără

- That the Infin. posse and Subj. possem are shortened forms for potesse and potessem.
 - 3. OLD AND RABE FORMS. See 204. 1 and 2.
- 290. Prōsum, I profit, is compounded of pro, for, and sum, to be. It inserts d when the simple verb begins with e; prōsum, prōdēs, prōdest, etc. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum.

291. Edo, I eat.

This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms like those of sum which begin in es. Thus:

5.37

āciim

		Euo,	euere,	eui,	esum.	
			Indicativ	E.—Presen	t.	
ĕdŏ,		,		ĕdĭmŭs,		ĕdunt.
	ē	s,	est;		estis,	·
			Subjunctiv	E.—Imperf	ect.	
ĕdĕrĕm			ěděrět;			ĕdĕrent.
essěm,	0	ssēs,	essět;	essēmŭs,	essētĭs,	essent.
			IMPE	RATIVE.		
	Pres	• { ĕdĕ } ēs; } ĕdĭt } estŏ	*	ědĭtě.		
		(ēs;	v	estě.	V 1 . W	
	Fur.) édit	ō;	editote,	ĕduntŏ.	
		(esto	;	estōtě,		
			Infinitiv	${ ilde EPresent}$	•	
			ĕdĕrĕ,	essĕ.		

- PASSIVE FORMS.—Estůr for éditůr (Indic. Pres.) and essetůr for édérētůr (Subj. Imp.) also occur.
- 2. Forms in im for am occur in Pres. Subj.: édim, édis, édit, etc., for édâm, édâs, édât, etc.
- Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but comedo has in Sup. comesum or comestum.

292. Fero, I bear.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Fěrŏ,

tŭli,

lātŭm.

fĕrunt.

INDICATIVE.

SINGULAR.

ferrě.

PLURAL.

Pres. fĕrŏ, fers. fert: IMP. fěrēbăm; FUT. fěrăm: PERF. tŭlī; PLUP. tŭlĕrăm: FUT. PERF. tŭlěrő;

fěrimůs, fertis,1 fěrēbāmus. fěrēmůs. tŭlimŭs. tŭlĕrāmŭs.

tŭlerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRES. fěrăm; IMP. ferrem: PERF. * tŭlĕrim: PLUP. tŭlissem;

fĕrāmŭs. ferrēmus.2 tŭlerimus. tŭlissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

PRES. FUT.

fer; 3 fertő. fertő: fertě. fertōtĕ feruntă.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferre.2 PERF. tŭlissĕ. Frr

PARTICIPLE. Pres. ferens.

lātūrŭs essě. GERUND.

FUT. lātūrus. SUPINE.

Gen. fĕrendī. Dat.

fěrendő. Acc. fĕrendŭm. Abl. fĕrendŏ.

Acc. lātum. Abl.lātū.

PASSIVE VOICE.

fĕrŏr,

ferrī.

latus sum.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur; 4 IMP. fěrēbăr; Fur. fěrăr; PERF. lātus sum:

PLUP.

ferimur, feriminī, feruntur. fěrēbāmur. fěrēmůr. lātī sumus. lātī ĕrāmŭs. lātī ĕrimus.

lātŭs ĕrăm ; lātŭs ĕrŏ ; FUT. PERF.

1 Fers for feris; fert for ferit; fertis for feritis (i dropped). ² Ferrem, etc. for fërërëm, etc.; ferrë for fërërë (e dropped),

3 Fer for fere; fertő, ferté, fertőté for feritő, ferité, feritőté (i dropped).

· Ferris for fereris; fertur for feritur.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	fĕrăr ;	fĕrāmŭr.
Імр.	ferrěr;	ferrēmŭr.1
Perf.	lātŭs sim ;	lātī sīmŭs.
PLUP.	lātŭs essĕm ;	lātī essēmŭs

IMPERATIVE.

PRES.	ferrě ; ¹	fĕrĭmĭnī.
FUT.	fertŏr,²	
	fertŏr;²	fěrunt ŏr.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres.	ferrī. ³		
Perf.	lātŭs essĕ.	Perf.	lātŭs.
Fur.	lātŭm īrī.	Fur.	fĕrendŭs.

- 1. IRREGULARITIES .- Fero, it will be seen, has two principal irregularities:
- 1) It forms its Perf. and Sup. tůli (rarely tetůli) and lātum from obsolete stems.
- 2) It drops the connecting vowel e or i in certain forms of the Pres. Indic. and Infin., the Imperf. Subj. and the Imperat. It doubles r in the Pres. Infin. Pass.
- 2. Compounds of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a cuphonic change:

ab-	aufěro,	auferre,	abstŭli,	ablātum.
ad-	affero,	afferre,	attŭli,	allātum.
con-	conféro,	conferre,	contůli,	collātum.
dis-	différo,	differre,	distŭli,	dilātum.
ex-	effero,	efferre,	extůli,	elätum.
in-	inféro,	inferre,	intůli,	illätum.
ob-	offero,	offerre,	obtůli,	oblātum.
sub-	sufféro.	sufferre.	sustůli,	sublätum.

Sustili and sublatum are not used in the sense of suffero, to bear, but they supply the Perf. and Sup. of tollo, to raise. See 280.

293. Volo, I am willing.—Nolo, I am unwilling.—Malo, I prefer.

vŏlŏ,	vellě,	vŏlui.
nōlŏ′	nollě,	nōluī.
mālŏ,	mallě,	māluī

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

vŏlŏ,	nōlŏ,	mālŏ,
Vīs,	non vīs,	māvīs,
vult;	non vult;	māvult;
völümüs,	nōlŭmŭs,	mālŭmus,
vultĭs,	non vultis,	māvultīs,
võlunt.	nōlunt	mālunt.

¹ Ferrer, etc., for fererer, etc.; ferre for ferere.

² Fertőr for féritőr.

³ Ferri for feri (Conj. III.).

IMPERFECT.

		IMPERFECT.		
vŏlēbăm, bās, etc.	I	nölēbăm, bās, etc.	1	mālēbăm, bās, etc.
		FUTURE.		
vŏlăm.	1	nōlăm.	1	mālăm.
		Perfect.		
vŏluī.	i	nōluī.	1	māluī.
		PLUPERFECT.		
vŏluĕrăm.	1	nōluĕrăm.	1	māluĕrăm.
	I	CUTURE PERFECT.		
vŏluĕrŏ.	1	nōluĕrŏ.	1	māluĕrŏ.
	SI	BJUNCTIVE		
	,0 0	Present.	•	
717			1	
vělím vělīs		nōlĭm nōlīs		mālĭm mālīs
vělit		nolit		mālit
vělīmŭs		nōlīmŭs		mālīmŭs
vělītĭs		nolītis		mālītĭs
vělint.	ı	nölint.	i	mālint.
		IMPERFECT.		
vellěm ¹		nollěm	{	mallěm
vellēs		nollës	1	mallēs
vellět vellēmŭs		nollět nollēmŭs	1	mallět
vellētis		nollētis	1	mallēmŭs mallētĭs
vellent.		nollent.		mallent.
		Perfect.	•	
vŏluĕrĭm.	ı	nōluĕrĭm.	1	māluĕrĭm.
	•	PLUPERFECT.	1	maruerim.
vŏluissěm.				
voruissem.	1	nōluissĕm.	1	māluissēm.
	IM	PERATIVE.		
		PRESENT.		
	1	nōlī, nōlītě.	1	
		FUTURE.		
	j	nölītŏ, nölītŏtĕ;	1	
	I	nōlītŏ, nōluntŏ.	1	

¹ Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for velèrem, velère; e is dropped and r assimilated; velèrem, velrem, vellem; velère, velle. So nollem and nolle, for nolèrem and nolère; mallem and malle, for malèrem and malère.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.

vellě. nollě. mallě.

PERFECT.

võluissě. noluissě. māluissě.

PARTICIPLE.

vŏlens. nōlens.

- Composition.—Nolo is compounded of ne or non and volo; malo, of magis
 and volo.
- 2. Rare Forms.—(1) Of volo: rolt, roltis, for rull, rullis; sis, sultis, for st ris, si rultis; rin for risne.—(2) Of volo: neris, nerult (nerolt), nerelle, for non rult, nolle.—(3) Of malo: marolo, marelim, marellem, for malo, mallem.

294. Fio, I become.

Fīŏ, fiĕrī, factus sum.

INDICATIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

PRES. fīŏ, fīs, fĭt; fīmus, fītis, fīunt. IMP. fīēbāmŭs. fīēbăm: FUT. fīăm; fīēmŭs. PERF. factus sum: factī sumus. PLUP. factus črám; factī ĕrāmŭs. factī ĕrīmŭs. FUT. PERF. factŭs ĕrŏ;

SUBJUNCTIVE.

 Pres.
 fiğm;
 fiāmus.

 IMP.
 fiërem;
 fiëremus.

 Perf.
 factūs sim;
 factī simus.

 PLUP.
 factūs essēm:
 factī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. fī; fītě.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fĭěri.
Perf. factŭs essě. Perf. factŭs.
Fut. factūm īrī. Fut. făciendŭs.

- 1. IRREGULARITY.—Fio is only slightly irregular, as will be seen from the para-
- 2. Meaning.—Fio means (1) to become, (2) to be made, appointed. In the second sense it is used as the passive of facto. See 279.
- 3. Compounds of fo are conjugated like the simple verb, but conft, deft, and inft are defective. See 297. III. 2.

295. Eo, I go.

Eŏ, îrĕ.

ĭtŭm.

INDICATIVE.

īvī,

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Pres.	eŏ, īs, ĭt;
Імр.	ībăm ;
Fur.	ībŏ;
Perf.	īvī;
PLUP.	īvěrăm;
FUT. PERF.	īvĕrŏ;

īmŭs, ītĭs, eunt. ībāmŭs. ībĭmŭs. īvĭmŭs.

īvērāmŭs. īvērīmŭs.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. eăm; Imp. īrěm; Perf. īvěrĭm;

eāmŭs. īrēmŭs. īvěrīmŭs. īvissēmŭs.

IMPERATIVE.

īvissēm:

Pres. Fut.

PLUP.

ī; ītŏ, ītŏ; ītě. ītōtĕ euntŏ.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. Perf. Fut. īrĕ. īvissĕ. ĭtūrŭs essĕ. Pres. iens. Gen. euntis.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.

eundī. eundŏ. eundŭm. eundŏ.

Acc. ĭtŭm. Abl. ĭtū.

 IRREGULARITIES.—Eo is a verb of the fourth conjugation, but it forms the Sup. with a short vowel (itum) and is irregular in several parts of the present system.
 It admits contraction according to 234: istis for ivistis, etc.

2. Passive Infinitive.—Eo as an intransitive verb wants the Passive, except when used impersonally in the third singular *ītur*, *ibātur*, etc. (301.3), but *īri*, the Pass. Infin., occurs as an auxiliary in the Fut. Infin. Pass. of the regular conjugations: amātum *īri*, etc.

3. Compounds of eo are generally conjugated like eo, but shorten îri into ii.— Vēneo (venum eo) has sometimes veniēbam for venībam. Many compounds want the supine, and a few admit in the Fut. a rare form in eam, ies, iet.

Transitive compounds have also the Passive: adeo, to approach, adeor, adiris, aditur, etc.

Ambio is regular, like audio, though ambībam for ambiēbam occurs.

296. Queo, I am able. Nequeo, I am unable.

Queo, quīre, quīvi, quītum, and Nequeo, nequīre, nequīvi (ii), nequītum, are conjugated like eo, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare, except in the Present tense.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

297. Defective Verbs want certain parts: we specify the following.²

I. PRESENT SYSTEM WANTING.

Coepi, I have begun. Memini, I remember. Odi, I hate.

INDICATIVE.

PERF.	coepī.	měminī.	ōdī.
PLUP.	coepěrăm.	mĕmĭnĕrăm.	ōdĕrăm.
FUT. PERF.	coepěrŏ.	mĕmĭnĕrŏ.	ōdĕrŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PERF.	coepĕrĭm.	měmĭněrĭm.	ōdĕrĭm.
PLUP.	coepissĕm.	měminissěm.	ōdissem.
	-	•	•

IMPERATIVE.

S.	mĕmentŏ.
P.	mĕmentōte.

INFINITIVE.

Perf.	coepissě.	memĭnisse.	ōdisse.
Fut.	coeptūrŭs cssě.		ōsūrŭs essĕ.

PARTICIPLE.

		LIVITOIL	
PERF. Fut.	coeptŭs. coeptūrŭs.		ōsŭs.³ ōsūrŭs.

 Passive Form.—With passive infinitives coepi generally takes the passive form: coepius sum, ĕram, etc. The Part. coepius is passive in sense.

2. PRESENT IN SENSE.—Memīni and odi are present in sense; hence in the Pluperf. and Fut. Perf. they have the sense of the Imperf. and Fut.—Novi, I know, Perf. of nosco, to learn, and consuēvi, I am wont, Perf. of consuesco, to accustom one's self, are also present in sense.

¹ A passive form, quītur, nequītur, etc., sometimes occurs before a Pass. Infin.

² Many, which want the Perf. or Sup. or both, have been mentioned under the Classification of Verbs.

³ Osus is active in sense, hating, but is rare except in compounds: exosus, perosus.

II. PARTS OF EACH SYSTEM WANTING.

1. Aio, I say, say yes.1

INDIC.			aĭs,² -ēbās,	aĭt ; -ēbăt ;	-ēbāmŭs,	 -ēbātĭs,	āiunt. -ēbant.³
	Perf.			aĭt;			
Subj.	Pres.		āiās,	āiāt;			āiant.
Typen	Dage	ni (rave)	•	•			

IMPER. Pres. ai (rare).
Part. Pres. aiens (as adjective).

2. Inquam, I say.

IMPER. Pres. inque. Fut. inquito.5

3. Fari, to speak.6

INDIC.	Pres.			fātur;			
	Fut.	fābŏr,		fābĭtŭr;			
	Perf.	fātŭs sŭm,	es,	est;	fātī sŭmŭs,	estĭs.	sunt.
		fātŭs erăm,	erās,	erăt;	fātī erāmus,	erātis.	ĕrant.
Subj.		fātŭs sim,	sīs,	sĭt;	fātī sīmŭs,	sītis,	sint.
		fātus essem,	essēs.	essét:	fātī essēmús,	essētis.	essent.
IMPER.			,	,	,	- ,	
INFIN.							

Part. Pres. (fans) fantis, Perf. fātūs, Fut. fandūs. Gerund, Gen. and Abl. fandī, dŏ. Supine, Abl. fātū.

III. IMPERATIVES AND ISOLATED FORMS.

1. Imperatives.—ăvē, salvē, cĕdŏ, ăgĕ, s		avētŏ; salvētŏ;	avēre, hail. salvēre, hail. tell me, give me. come.
ăpăgĕ,	-5,		begonc.

¹ In this verb a and i do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the i has the sound of y: a-yo, aⁱ-is. See 9. 2.

² The interrogative form aisne is often shortened to ain'.

³ Albam, albas, etc., occur in comedy.

⁴ Also written inquibat.

⁵ A few forms of the Subj. are sometimes given, but they are not found in the classics.

⁶ Fāri is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have some forms not found in the simple; thus: affāmur, affamīni, affābar, effabēris. Subj. Imp. fārer also occurs in compounds.

⁷ The Fut. salvēbis is also used for the Imperat.

⁸ Age is also used in the sense of the Plural.

2. ISOLATED FORMS.

۰	INDIC. Pres. confĭt, defĭunt, infĭt, infīunt,	defīet,	confiăt,	confiĕrĕt,	def ĭĕrī,	to be done. to be wanting. to begin.
	Sub. Imp. főréi Ind. Pres. övät Ind. Pres. quae	m, fŏrēs, . Par	r. ŏvans,	— — förer	nt. INF. f	ŏrĕ.¹ he rejoiees. I pray.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs never admit a personal subject. They correspond to the English Impersonal with *it*: *licet*, it is lawful, *ŏportet*, it behooves. They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

299. Strietly Impersonal are only:

Děcět, děcuit,	it becomes.	Piget, piguit,	it grieves.
Lĭbĕt, { lĭbuĭt, lĭbĭtŭm est,	it pleases.4		it causes re-
Lĭcĕt, Slĭcuĭt,	it is lawful.4	gret; poenitet me,	I repent.
	it is evident.4	Pŭdět, { pŭduĭt, pŭdĭtŭm est,	it shames.
Lĭquět, lĭcuĭt, Mĭsěrět, mĭsěrĭtům est,		Taedet, it wearies; pe	
me miseret,	I pity.	taesum est.	rtacdet, per
Oportět, ŏportuřt,	it behooves.		

1. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense: (1) from liber: libens, willing; (2) from licer: licens, free; licitus, allowed; (3) from poeniter: poenitens, penitent; poenitendus, to be repented of; (4) from puder: pudens, modest; pudendus, shameful.

2. Geeunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances; poenHendum, pudendo.

300. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate the changes of weather, or the operations of nature:

Fulmĭnăt, Grandĭnăt, Lăpĭdăt, Lūcescĭt,	it lightens. it hails. it rains stones. it grows light.	Pluĭt (P. pluit), Rōrăt, Tŏnăt (tŏnuĭt), Vespĕrascĭt,	it rains. dew falls. it thunders. evening approaches.
Ningĭt (ninxit),	it snows.		

¹ Forem = essem: fore = futurum esse. See 204. 1.

² Old forms for quaero and quaerimus.

³ The real subject is generally an infinitive or clause, sometimes a neuter pronoun: hoc fièri oportet, that this should be done is necessary.

⁴ These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject. So the Comp. dédécet. So also some of the others in rare instances.

- 301. Many other verbs are often used impersonally. Thus
 - 1. The following:

pens.	rit,	ıt happens.
ears.	Intěrest,	it concerns.
cerns.	Jŭvat,	it delights.
seful.	Pătet,	it is plain.
vident.]	Pertinet,	it pertains.
pens.	Plăcet,	it pleases.
itting.	Praestat,	it is better.
ghts.	Praetěrit (me),	it escapes (mc).
		it concerns.
		it remains.
pens.	Sŭbit,	it occurs.
		it suffices.
*		it remains.
		there is leisure.
	ears. cerns. serns. seful. vident. pens. itting. glits. olcases. eves. popens. xpedient.	ears. Intérest, zerns. Júvat, seful. Pátet, prident. Pertinet, pens. Plácet, itting. Praestat, glits. Praetĕrit (me), cleases. Réfert, zeres. Restat, popens. Subit, xpedient. Sufficit, grees (ma)

2. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation (233) is often used impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Mihi scribendum est, I must write; tibi scribendum est, you must write; illi scribendum est, he must write.

3. Verbs which are intransitive in the active, i. e., do not govern the accusative, can only be used impersonally in the passive, and many others may be so used. The participle is then neuter:

Mihi creditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; tibi creditur, you are believed; illi creditur, he is believed; certatur, it is contended; curritur, there is running, people run; pugnātur, it is fought, they, we, etc., fight; scribitur, it is written; venītur, they come, we come, etc.; vivītur, we, you, they live.

CHAPTER V.

PARTICLES.

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called *Particles*: the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection*.

ADVERBS.

303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currère, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.

304. Adverbs may be divided, according to their signification, into four principal classes:

I. Adverbs of Place.

Hīe,	here ;	hūc,	hither;	hine,	hence.
illīe,	there;	illūc,	thither;	illine,	thence.
istīe,	there;	istūc,	thither;	istine,	thence.
ŭbi,	where?	quō,	whither?	undě,	whence?

II. ADVERBS OF TIME.

Hŏdiē,	to-day.	nondum,	not yet.	saepĕ,	often.
ĭbi,	then.	nunc,	now.	sĕmĕl,	once.
jam,_	now.	nunquam,	never.	tum,	then.
jamdiū,	long since.	ōlim,	formerly.	unquam,	ever.

III. Adverbs of Manner, Means, Degree.

Adeo,	80.	paeně,	almost.	sīc,	80.
aliter,	otherwise.	pălam,	openly.	ŭt,	as.
ĭta,	80.	prorsus,	wholly.	valdē,	mueh.
măgis,	more.	rīte,	rightly.	vix,	scarcely.

IV. Adverbs of Cause, Inference.

Cūr,	why?	eo,	for this reason.
quārē,	wherefore.	ĭdeo,	on this account.
quamobrem,	wherefore.	idcireo,	therefore.
quapropter,	wherefore.	proptěrea,	therefore.

305. Comparison.—Most Adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending us of the adjective into \bar{e} :

altus, alte.	altior, altius,	altissīmus, altissīme,	lofty. loftily.
prūdens,	prudentior,	prudentissīmus,	prudent.
prūdenter,	prudentius,	prudentissime,	prudently.

 MAGIS AND MAXIME.—When the adjective is compared with magis and maxime, the adverb is compared in the same way:

egregius, măgis egregius, maxime egregius, excellent. egregie, măgis egregie, maxime egregie, excellently.

2. IRREGULAR COMPARISON.—When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bŏnus,	melior,	optīmus,	good.
běne,	melius,	optime,	well.
măle,	pejus,	pessime,	badly.

3. Defective Comparison.—When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

	nŏvus, nŏve,	deterior, deterius,	deterrĭmus, deterrĭme, novissĭmus, novissĭme,	worse. worse. new. newly.
4.	COMPAREDA	few not derived fr	om adjectives are c	ompared :
	diū, saepě, sătis, nūper,	diutius, saepius, satius,	diutissime, saepissime, nuperrime,	for a long time. often. sufficiently. recently.

5. NOT COMPARED. - Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: hic, here; nunc, now; rulgariter, commonly.

6. Superlatives in o or um are used in a few adverbs: primo, primum,

potissimum.

PREPOSITIONS.

306. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other: in Italia esse, to be in Italy; ante me, before me.

For list of prepositions, see 433-435.

307. Inseparable Prepositions.—Ambi, amb, around, about; dis, di, asunder; re, red, back; se, aside, apart; ne and ve, not, are called inseparable prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

CONJUNCTIONS.

- 308. Conjunctions are mere connectives: pater ET filius, the father and son; pater AUT filius, the father or son.
- 309. Conjunctions are divided, according to their use, into two classes:
- I. Coördinate Conjunctions,—which connect similar constructions: labor voluptasque, labor and pleasure; Carthaginem cepit ac diruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.
- II. Subordinate Conjunctions,—which connect subordinate with principal constructions: haec dum colliquat, effügit, while they collect these things, he escapes.

I. Coördinate Conjunctions.

- 310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise five subdivisions :
 - 1. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting union:
- Et, quě, atquě, āc, and. Etiam, quoquě, also. Něquě, něc, and not. Něquě—něquě, něc—něc, něquě—něc, neither—nor.

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting separation:

Aut, věl, vě, sīvě (seu), or. Aut—aut, včl—věl, either—or. Sīvě—sīvě, either—or.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

Sed, autem, vērum, vēro, but. At, but, on the contrary. Atquī, but rather. Cētērum, but still. Tămen, yet.

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting inference:

Ergo, ĭgĭtŭr, inde, proinde, ĭtăque, hence, therefore. Sec also 587, IV. 2.

5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause:

Nam, namque, ĕnim, etĕnim, for.

II. Subordinate Conjunctions.

311. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise eight subdivisions:

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting time:

Quando, quum, when. Ut, ŭbi, as, when. Quum prīmum, ut prīmum, ŭbi prīmum, sĭmŭl, sĭmŭlac, sĭmŭlatque, as soon as. Dum, dōnĕc, quoad, quamdiu, while, until, as long as. Antĕquam, priusquam, before. Posteăquam, after.

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting comparison:

Ut, ŭtī, sīcūt, sīcūtī, as, so as. Vēlūt, just as. Praeūt, proūt, according as, in comparison with. Quam, as. Tanquam, quăsi, ŭt sī, āc sī, vēlūt sī, as if.

3. Conditional Conjunctions, denoting condition:

Sĩ, if. Sĩ nôn, nǐsĩ, nĩ, if not. Sĩn, but if. Sĩ quǐdem, if indeed. Sĩ mödŏ, dum, mŏdŏ, dummŏdŏ, if only.

4. Concessive Conjunctions, denoting concession:

Quamquam, licet, quum, although. Etsī, tămetsī, etiamsī, even if. Quamvīs, quantumvīs, quantumlībet, however much, although. Ut, grant that. Nē, grant that not.

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting purpose or end:

Ut, ŭtī, that, in order that. Nē, nēvě (neu), that not. Quō, that. Quōmĭrĭs, that not.

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting consequence or result:

Ut, so that. Ut non, quin, so that not.

7. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause:

Quia, quod, because. Quum, since. Quoniam, quando, quandoquidem, siquidem, since indeed.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, denoting inquiry:

Ně, nonně, num, utrum, an, whether. An non, necne, or not.

INTERJECTIONS.

- 312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address. They may express
 - 1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, hui, aha, ŭtat, păpae, vah, ēn, eccč.

2. Joy: io, ha, he, eu, ēvoe.

3. Sorrow: vae, hei, heu, ēheu, ohē, ah, au, prō or proh.

4. Disgust: ahă, phuī, ăpăgĕ.5. Calling: heus, o, eho, chodum.

6. Praise: eugĕ, ejä, hejä.

CHAPTER VI.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

- 313. Words may be formed in two ways:
- I. By Derivation; i. e., by the addition of certain endings to the stems of other words: amor, love, from amo, to love.
- II. By Composition; i. e., by the union of two or more words or their stems: benevõlens, well-wishing, from bene, well, and volens, wishing.
- 1. Simple and Compound.—Words formed by composition are called Compounds; those not thus formed are called Simple Words.
- 2. Primitive and Derivative.—Simple words formed by derivation are called *Derivatives*; those not thus formed are called *Primitives*.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

NOUNS.

314. Nouns are derived from other Nouns, from Adjectives, and from Verbs.

I. Nouns from Nouns.

315. DIMINUTIVES generally end in

ŭlus, ŭla, ŭlum, cŭlus, cŭla, cŭlum.

hort-ŭlus,	a small garden,	$_{ m from}$	hortus,	garden.
virg-ŭla,	a small branch,	"	virga,	branch.
oppid-ŭlum,	a small town,	44	oppidum,	town.
flos-cŭlus,	a small flower,		flos,	flower.
part-i-cŭla,	a small part,	"	pars,	part.
munus-cŭlum,	a small present,	"	munus,	present.

- Ulus, ŭla, ŭlum are generally added to the stems of nouns of Dec. I. and II., and to some of Dec. III.
- 2. Olus, ŏla, ŏlum are used for ŭlus, ŭla, ŭlum, when a vowel precedes: filiŏlus, little son, from filius; filiŏla, little daughter, from filia; atri-ŏlum, small hall, from atrium.
- 2. Ellus, ella, ellum; illus, illa, illum, are sometimes used, especially with primitives of Dec. I. and II., whose stems end in **l**, **n**, or **r**; but *el* and *il* in these endings generally displace the last syllable of the stem: ocellus, small eye, from oculus; fabella, short fable, from fabula; bacillum, small staff, from baculum.
- 4. Cĭlus, cĭla, cĭlum are used with primitives of Dec. IV. and V., and with some of Dec. III. These are appended
- 1) To the Nominative: flos, flos-eŭlus; mulier, muliereŭla; munus, munuscŭlum.
- To the Stem with a connecting vowel i, sometimes e: pons (bridge), pont-i-călus; pars, particăla; vulpes (fox), vulpecăla.
- 3) To the Stem of nouns in o (G. onis, inis), with stem-vowel changed to u: homo (man), homun-călus; rirgo (maiden), rirguncăla. Like nouns in o, a few other words form diminutives in uncălus, uncăla: arus (uncle), aruncălus; domus (house), domuncăla.
- Uleus and cio are rare: equuleus, a small horse, from equus; homuncio, a small man, from homo.

316. Patronymics, or names of descent, generally end in

ădes,

masculine.

ĭs,	ēis,	ias,	as,	femininc.
Tantal-ĭdes, Thes-īdes, Laert-iădes, Thesti-ădes,	son of Tantai son of Thesev son of Laerte son of Thesti	ıs ; s ;	Tantăl-is, Thes-ēis, Laert-ias, Thesti-as,	daughter of Tantalus. daughter of Theseus. daughter of Lærtes. daughter of Thestius.

īdes, iădes,

- 1. Ides (ĭ) and ĭs are the common endings.
- 2. Ides (1) and ēis are used especially with primitives in eus.
- 3. Iădes, ădes, and ias, as, are used principally with primitives in ius, and in those in as and es of Dec. I.—Aenēas has Aeneades, masc. and Aenēis, fem.

- 4. Ine and one are rare feminine endings: Neptun-ine, daughter of Neptune; Acrisi-one, daughter of Acrisius.
- 317. Designations of Place are often formed with the endings

ārium,	ētum,	īle.	
columb-ārium,	a dovecot,	from	columba.
querc-ētum,	a forest of oaks,		quercus.
ov-īle,	a sheepfold,		ovis.

- Arium designates the place where anything is kept, a receptacle: aerārium, treasury, from aes.
- 2. Etum, used with names of trees and plants, designates the place where they flourish: olivētum, an olive grove, from olīva.
- 3. **He,** used with names of animals, designates their stall or fold: borlle, stall for cattle, from bos.
- 318. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with

ārius,	io,	ium,	ĭtium,	tus (ĭ	tus),	ātus.
statu-ā lud-io, sacerd serv-iti vir-tus consul	ot-ium,	a pl prie serv virt	atuary, layer, esthood, itude, ue, sulship,	from "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" ""	statu ludu sace serv vir. cons	ıs. rdos. us.

- 1. Arius and io generally designate one's occupation.
- Ium and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.
- 3. Tus and itus designate some characteristic or condition: virtus, manliness, virtue, from vir; juventus, youth, from juvenis.
- 4. Atus denotes rank, office, collection: consulatus, consulship, from consul; senatus, senate, collection of old men, from sener.
 - 5. Patrial of Gentile Nouns.—See 326, 3.

II. NOUNS FROM ADJECTIVES.

319. From Adjectives are formed various Abstract Nouns with the endings

ia,	ĭtia,	ĭtas,	ĭtūdo,	•	imōnia.
diligent-ia, amic-itia, bon-ĭtas, sol-itūdo,		diligence, friendship, goodness, solitude,	from "		dilĭgens. amīcus. bonus. solus.
aer-imonia	,	sharpness,	"		acer.

 Itas, tas, ĕtas.— Has sometimes drops i: libertas, liberty, from liber; ĕtas is used with primitives in ius: piĕtas, piety, from pius. Sometimes the stem of the adjective is slightly changed: facilis, facultas, faculty; difficilis, difficultas, difficulty; potens, potestas, power; honestus, honestas, honesty.

- 2. Itūdo and itas.—A few adjectives form abstracts with both these endings: firmus, firmitas, firmitūdo, firmness. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus generally change tus into tūdo: sollicitus, sollicitūdo, solicitude.
- 2. Imonia is rare: Pursimonia, parsimony, from parcus, changes c into s.

III. NOUNS FROM VERBS.

1. From the Present Stem.

320. From the Present stem are formed *Verbal Nouns* with various endings, especially with

or; ium; men, mentum; bălum, călum, brum, crum, trum.

am-or,	lore,	from	amo.
tim-or,	fear,	"	timeo.
gaud-ium,	jou,	"	gaudeo.
cert-ā-men,	contest,	"	certo.
orn-ā-mentum,	ornament.	"	orno.
voc-a-bŭlum,	appellation,	46	voco.
veh-ĭ-cŭlum,	vehiele,	"	veho.
fl-a-brum.	blast,	"	flo.
simul-ā-crum,	image,	"	simŭlo.
ar-ā-trum,	plough,	"	aro.

- 1. Or designates the action or state denoted by the verb.
- 2. Ium has nearly the same force, but sometimes designates the thing done: aedificium, edifice, from aedifico.
- 3. **Men** and **mentum** generally designate the *means* of an action, or its involuntary *subject: flumen*, a stream, something which flows, from *fluo*; agmen, an army in motion, from ago.

These endings are generally preceded by a connecting vowel: orn-a-mentum, ornament; rest-i-mentum, clothing. Sometimes the stem itself is shortened or changed: fragmentum, fragment, from frango; momentum, moving force, from moveo.

4. Bălum, călum, brum, crum, trum designate the *instrument* or the place of the action: vehiculum, vehicle, instrument of the action, from veho; stabălum, stall, place of the action, from sto.

These endings generally take a connecting vowel. Sometimes the stem itself is changed: *sepulcrum*, sepulchre, from *sepelio.

- 5. **Ulum**, tila.—I'lum for culum occurs after c and g: vinc-ulum, a bond, from vincio; cing-ulum, girdle, from cingo. Ula also occurs: regula, rule, from rego.
- 6. Us, a, o sometimes designate the agent of the action: coquus, cook, from coquo; scriba, writer, from scribo; erro, wanderer, from erro.
- 7. Ela, īdo, īgo and a few other endings also occur: querēla, com-plaint, from queror; cupīdo, desire, from cupio; orīgo, origin, from orior.

2. From the Supine Stem.

321. From the Supine stem are formed Verbal Nouns with the endings

	or,	io,	us,	ūra.	
amāt-or, audīt-or, monit-io, audīt-io, audīt-us, cant-us, piet-ūra,		lover, hearer, advising, hearing, hearing, singing, painting,		from	amo. audio. moneo. audio. audio. cano.
		2			pingo.

 Or denotes the agent or doer. When t precedes, corresponding feminine nouns are generally formed by changing tor into trix: victor, victrix.

2. Io, us, and ura form abstract nouns, and denote the act itself.

ADJECTIVES.

322. Derivative adjectives are formed from Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs.

I. Adjectives from Nouns.

1. From Common Nouns.

323. Fulness.—Adjectives denoting fulness, abundance, supply, generally end in

õsus,	Ientus,	ātus,	ītus,	ütus
anim-ōsus, op-u-lentus, al-ātus, turr-ītus, corn-ūtus,	o pulen winged turrete horned	d,	from	animus, opes. ala. turris. cornu.

1. Uosus is used for osus in adjectives from nouns of Dec. IV. and in some others: fructuösue, fruitful.

2. Lentus takes a connecting vowel, generally u, sometimes o: op-ulentus, vin-o-lentus.

3. Estus and ustus also occur, but generally with a change in the stem: modestus, modest, from modus; justus, just, from jus.

324. Material.—Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in

eus, ĭnus, nus, neus; rarely āceus, and ĭcius.

aur-eus,	golden,	from	aurum.
cedr-ĭnus,	cedar,		cedrus.
popul-nus,	of poplar,		popŭlus.
popul-neus,	of poplar,		popŭlus.
7			

papyr-āceus, of papyrus, from papyrus. later-ĭcius, of brick, " later.

325. Characteristic.—Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in

ĭcus, īlis, īnus, ius; ālis, ānus, āris, ārius, ensis.

civ-ĭcus,	relating to a citizen,	from	civis.
civ-īlis,	relating to a citizen,	"	civis.
equ-īnus,	of, pertaining to a horse,	"	equus.
reg-ius,	royal,	"	rex.
mort-ālis,	mortal,	"	mors.
urb-ānus,	of, pertaining to a city,	"	urbs.
salut-āris,	salutary,	44	salus.
auxili-ārius,	auxiliary,	"	auxilium.
for-ensis,	forensic,	"	forum.

- 1. Ticus is sometimes added to the Nom. : rus, rus-ticus, rustic.
- Ernus, ester, itimus and a few other endings also occur: pater, paternus, paternal; campus, campester, level; mare, maritimus, maritime.

2. From Proper Nouns.

326. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in ānus, iānus, inus; iǎcus, icus, ius, ensis, iensis; as, aeus, ēus.

of $Sylla$,	\mathbf{from}	Sulla.
Roman,	"	Roma.
Ciceronian,	"	Cicero.
Latin,	"	Latium.
Corinthian,	44	Corinthus.
Corinthian,	"	Corinthus.
British,	"	Britannus.
of Cannae,	"	Cannae.
Athenian,	"	Athēnae.
of $Fidenae$,		Fidēnae.
Šmyrnean,	"	Smyrna.
Py thay or ean,	"	Pythagŏras.
	Roman, Ciceronian, Latin, Corinthian, Corinthian, British, of Cannae, Athenian, of Fidenae, Smyrnean,	Roman, " Ciceronian, " Latin, " Corinthian, " Corinthian, " British, " of Cannae, " Athenian, " of Fidenae, " Smyrnean, "

- Iānus is the ending generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but ānus, īnus, ius, and the Greek endings ēus and icus also occur.
- 2. Ensis and cānus (ānus) in derivatives from names of countries signify merely being in the country, in distinction from belonging to it: thus exercitus Hispaniensis is an army stationed in Spain, but exercitus Hispanicus is a Spanish army.
- 3. Patrials.—Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as *Patrial* or *Gentile Nouns* to designate the citizens of the place: *Corinthii*, the Corinthians; *Athenienses*, the Athenians.

II. Adjectives from Adjectives.

327. DIMINUTIVES from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (315) in

ŭlus, ŭla, ŭlum, cŭlus, cŭla, cŭlum.

long-ŭlus, a, um, rather long, from longus. pauper-eŭlus, a, um, rather poor, " pauper.

- 1. Olus, ellus, and illus also occur as in nouns.
- Călus is sometimes added to comparatives: durius-călus, somewhat hard, from durius.

III. Adjectives from Verbs.

328. Verbal adjectives generally end in

bundus, cundus; idus, ilis, bilis, ax.

mir-ā-bundus,	wondering,	from	miror.
ver-e-cundus,	diffident,	"	vereor.
cal-ĭdus,	warm,	"	caleo.
pav-ĭdus,	fearful,	"	paveo.
doc-ĭlis,	docile,	"	doceo.
am-a-bilis,	worthy of love,	"	amo.
pugn-ax,	pugnacious,	"	pugno.
aud-ax,	during,	4.6	audeo.

1. Bundus and cundus have nearly the force of the present participle; but bundus is somewhat more expressive than the Part.: laetabundus, rejoicing greatly; and cundus generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling: verecundus, diffident.

These endings take a connecting vowel. See examples.

- 2. Idus retains the simple meaning of the verb.
- 3. Ilis and bilis denote capability, generally in a passive sense: amabilis, capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: terribilis, terrible, capable of producing terror.

These endings are generally added to the Present Stem (bilis with a connecting vowel), but sometimes to the Supine Stem: flexibilis, flexible.

- 4. Ax denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: loquax, loquacious.
- 5. **Uus**, **ŭlus**, **ĭcius**, and **īvus** also occur:—(1) uus in the sense of *ĭdus*: vacuus, vacant.—(2) ulus in the sense of ax: credŭlus, credulous.—(3) *ĭcius* and *īvus* (added to Sup. Stem) in the sense of the Perf. Part.: ficticius, feigned, from fingo (fictum); captīvus, captive, from capio (captum).

IV. Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions.

329. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions:

hodiernus, of this day, from hodie. contrarius, contrary, " contra.

VERBS.

330. Derivative Verbs are formed from Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

I. Verbs from Nouns and Adjectives.

331. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives end in

Conj. I.	Conj. II.	Conj. IV.
0,	eo,	io.

Conjugation I.—Transitive.

armo,	to arm,	\mathbf{from}	arma.
cūro,	to cure,	"	cura.
nomino,	to name,	"	nomen.
caeco,	to make blind,	"	caecus.
liběro,	to liberate,	"	liber.

Conjugation II.—Intransitive.

flöreo,	to bloom,	from	flos.
lűeco,	to shine,	"	lux.
albeo,	to be white,	"	albus.
flāveo,	to be yellow,	"	flavus.

Conjugation IV.—Generally Transitive.

fīnio,	to finish,	\mathbf{from}	finis.
vestio,	to clothe,	"	vestis.
mollio,	to soften,	46	mollis.
saevio (intrans.),	to rage,	"	saevus.

- 1. Asco and esco occur in Inceptives. See 332. II.
- 2. **Deponent.**—Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent: dominor, to domineer, from dominus.

II. VERBS FROM VERBS.

- 332. Verbs derived from other verbs are—Frequentatives, Inceptives, Desideratives, and Diminutives.
- I. Frequentatives denote repeated or continued action. They are of the first conjugation and are formed
 - 1. From Supines in ātum by changing ātum into ĭto:

elam-ĭto,	to exclaim, .	from	clamo,	clamātum.
vol-ĭto,	to flit,	"	volo,	volātum.

2. From other Supines by changing um into o, sometimes ito:

adjūt-o,	to assist often,	from	adjŭvo,	adjūtum.
habĭt-o,	to have often,	**	habeo,	habĭtum.
lect-ito,	to read often,	44	lego,	lectum.

- 1) Ito is sometimes added to the Present Stem of verbs of Conj. III.: ago, agito; quaero, quaerito.
 - 2) Esso and isso form derivatives which are generally classed with

frequentatives, though they are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of Conj. III.: facio, facesso, to do earnestly; incipio, incipisso, to begin eagerly. The regular frequentatives sometimes have the same force: rapio, rapto, to seize eagerly.

II. INCEPTIVES, or INCHOATIVES, denote the beginning of the action. They are of the third conjugation, and end in

	anoo,	Choo,		1500.	
gĕl-asco,	to begi	n to freeze,	from	gĕlo,	āre.
rŭb-esco,	to grov	v red,	44	rŭbeo,	ēre.
tıĕm-isco,	to begi	n to tremble,	4.6	trěmo,	ĕre.
obdorm-isco	, to fall	asleep,	"	obdormio,	īre.

- Asco is used in inceptives from verbs of Conj. I., and in a few from nouns and adjectives: puer, puerasco, to become a boy.
- 2. Esco is by far the most common ending, and is used in inceptives from verbs of Conj. II., and in many from nouns and adjectives: $d\bar{u}rus$, $d\bar{u}resco$, to grow hard.

III. Desideratives denote a *desire* to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation and are formed from the Supine by changing **um** into **ŭrio**:

ēs-ŭrio,	to desire to eat,	from	ĕdo,	ēsum.
empt-ŭrio,	to desire to buy,	"	ĕmo,	emptum.

IV. DIMINUTIVES denote a *feeble* action. They are of the first conjugation and are formed from the Present by changing the ending into **illo**:

cant-illo,	to sing feebly,	from	canto.
conscrib-illo,	to scribble,	"	conscrībo.

ADVERBS.

333. Adverbs are formed from Nouns, Adjectives, Participles, Pronouns, and Prepositions.

I. Adverbs from Nouns.

334. Adverbs are formed from nouns

1. By simply taking a case-ending, especially that of the ablative:

tempore, tempori, in time; forte, by chance; jūre, with right, rightly.

- 2. By taking special endings:
- 1) ātim, tim, denoting manner: grex, gregātim, by herds; fur, furtim, by stealth.

2) Itus denoting origin, Source: coelum, coelitus, from heaven; fundus, funditus, from the foundation.

II. ADVERBS FROM ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

335. Adverbs from adjectives and participles generally end in

e, er, iter.

āoctus, docte, learnedly; līber, lībere, freely; elegans, eleganter, elegantly; prūdens, prudenter, prudently; celer, celeriter, quickly.

1. E is added to the stems of most adjectives and participles of Dec. I.

and II. See examples.

- 2. Er and iter are added to the stems of adjectives of Dec. III.—er to stems in nt, iter to other stems.—Er and iter also occur in adverbs from adjectives and participles of Dec. I. and II.
- 3. Atim, im, and itus also occur in adverbs from primitives of Dec. I. and II.: singuli, singulātim, one by one; passus, passim, everywhere; divinus, divinitus, divinely.
- 4. Other Forms.—Certain forms of adjectives sometimes become adverbs:
 - 1) Neuters in e, um, rarely a: facile, easily; multum, multa, much.
- 2) Ablatives in a, o, is: dextra, on the right; consulto, designedly; paucis, briefly, in few words.
- 3) Accusatives in am: bifariam, in two parts; multifariam, in many parts or places (partem, understood).
 - 5. NUMERAL ADVERBS .- See 181.

III. Adverbs from Pronouns.

336. Various adverbs are formed from Pronouns: thus from hic, ille, and iste are formed

hīc,	here ;	hūc,	hither;	hinc,	hence.
illīc.	there:	illūć,	thither;	illine,	thence.
istīc,	there;	istūc,	thither;	istinc,	thence.

IV. Adverbs from Prepositions.

337. A few adverbs are formed from Prepositions, or are at least related to them:

intra, intro, within; ultra, ultro, beyond; in, intus, within; sub, subtus, beneath.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

338. The elements of a compound may unite in three distinct ways:

I. The two elements unite without change of form: decem-viri, the decemvirs, ten men; ab-eo, to go away; ante-pono, to place before.

II. One element, generally the first, is put in an oblique case, generally the genitive, dependent upon the other: legis-lator, legislator, from lex, legis, and lator.

III. The stem of the first element unites with the second element, either with or without a connecting vowel-generally i, sometimes e or u: bell-i-gero, to wage war, from bellum and gero, with connecting vowel; magn-animus, magnanimous, from magnus and animus, without connecting vowel.

1. Prepositions in Composition admit the following euphonic changes.

A, ab, abs:—a before m and v; abs before c, p, t; ab before the vowels and the other consonants: a-mitto; abs-condo; ab-eo, ab-jicio. But abs before p drops b: as-porto for abs-porto. Ab becomes au in au-fero and au-fugio.

Ad,—unchanged before vowels and before b, d, h, j, m, and v; d generally assimilated before the other consonants, but changed to c before q and dropped before gn and often before sc, sp, and st; ad-eo, ad-do, ad-jungo; affero, al-ligo; ac-quiro, a-gnosco (ad and gnosco), a-scendo.

Ante,—unchanged, except in anti-cipo and anti-sto.

Circum,—unchanged, except in circu-eo.

Com for cum,—(1) unchanged before b, m, p: $com \cdot bibo$, $com \cdot mitto$,— (2) m generally dropped before vowels, h, and gn: co-eo, co-haereo, co-quosco, -(3) m assimilated before l, n, r: col-ligo, cor-rumpo,-(4) m changed to n before the other consonants: con-féro, con-géro.

E, ex:—ex before vowels and before c, h, p, q, s, t, and with assimilation before f; e generally before the other consonants and sometimes before p and s: ex-eo, ex-pono, ef-fero; e-duco, e-ligo, e-poto, e-scendo. S after ex is often dropped: exspecto or expecto.

In.—**n** assimilated before l, m, r, changed to m before b, p; dropped before gn; in other situations unchanged: il-lūdo, im-mitto; im-buo, im-pōno; i-gnosco; in-eo, in-dūco.

Inter,—unchanged, except in intel-ligo.

Ob,-b assimilated before c, f, g, p; in other situations generally unchanged: oc-curro, of-ficio, og-gero, op-pono; ob-jicio, ob-sto. But b is dropped in o-mitto, and an old form obs occurs in a few words: obs-olesco, os-tendo for obs-tendo (b dropped).

Per,—unchanged, except in pel-licio, pel-luceo, and pe-jero.

Post,—unchanged, except in po-moerium and po-meridianus.

¹ Except of course cuphonic changes.

Pro,-sometimes prod before a vowel: prod-eo, prod-igo.

Sub,—b assimilated before c, f, g, p, generally before m and r; dropped before sp; in other situations unchanged; suc-cumbo, su-spicio for sub-spicio; sub-eo, sub-dūco. An old form subs shortened to sus occurs in a few words: sus-cipio, sus-pendo.

Trans,—drops s before s, and often ns before d, j, n: trans-eo, trans-féro; tran-silio for trans-silio; tra-do for trans-do; tra-jicio for trans-jicio;

tra-no for trans-no.

2. Inseparable Prepositions (307) also admit euphonic changes:

Ambi, amb:—amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an before consonants: amb-igo; ambi-dens, am-pitto, an-quiro.

Dis, di:—dis before c, p, q, t, s before a vowel, and, with assimilation, before f; di in most other situations; dis-curro, dis-pōno, dif-fluo; di-dūco, di-mŏreo. But dir occurs in dir-tmo and dir-tbeo (dis and habeo), and both dis and di occur before j: dis-jungo, di-judteo.

Re, red:—red before vowels, before h, and in red-do; re in other situa-

tions: red-eo, red-igo, red-hibeo; re-cludo, re-vello.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

339. In compound nouns the first part is generally a noun, but sometimes an adjective, adverb, or preposition; the second part is a verb or noun:

art-ĭ-fex,	artist,	from	ars and facio.
capr-ĭ-cornus, aequ-ĭ-noctium,	eapricorn, equinox,	44	eaper and cornu. acquus and nox.
ne-mo,	nobody,	"	ne and homo.
pro-nomen,	pronoun,	"	pro and nomen.

- 1. Genitive in Compounds.—In compounds of two nouns, or of a noun and an adjective, the first part is often a genitive: legis-lātor, legislator; juris-consultus, lawyer.
- 2. Compounds in fex, cen, and cola are among the most important compounds of nouns and verbs; fex from facio; cen from cano; cola from colo; art-i-fex, artist; tuò-i-cen, trumpeter; agr-i-cola, husbandman.

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

340. In compound adjectives the first part is generally a noun, adjective, or preposition, and the second a noun, adjective, or verb:

lēt-ĭ-fer,	$death\mbox{-}bearing,$	from	lētum and fero.
magn-animus,	magnanimous,	"	magnus and animus.
per-făcilis,	very easy,	"	per and facilis.

COMPOUND VERBS.

341. In compound verbs the first part is a noun, adjective, verb, adverb, or preposition, and the second is a verb:

aed-ĭ-f ĭco, ampl-ĭ-f ĭco,	to build,	from	aedes and facio.
pat-ĕ-făcio,	to enlarge, to open,	"	amplus and facio. pateo and facio.
bene-făcio,	to benefit,	"	bene and facio.
ab-eo,	to go away,	"	ab and eo.

1. Two Verbs .- When the first part is a verb, the second is always

facio as above; pat-e-facio.

2. NOUN or ADJECTIVE and VERB .- When the first part is a noun or adjective, the second part is generally, but not always, facio or ago. These verbs then become fico and igo of Conj. I.: aed-i-fico, are, to build; nav-igo, are, to sail, from navis and ago.

3. Vowel Changes.—Verbs compounded with prepositions often under-

go certain vowel-changes.

 A short and ĕ generally become ĭ: hăbeo, ad-hĭbeo; tĕneo, con-tĭneo. But à sometimes becomes è or u: carpo, de-cerpo; calco, con-culco.

2) Ae becomes i: caedo, in-cido.

3) Au generally becomes o or u: plaudo, ex-plodo; claudo, in-cludo.

4. Changes in Prepositions.—See 338. 1 and 2.

COMPOUND ADVERBS.

342. Compound Adverbs are variously formed, but most of them may be divided into three classes:

1. Such as consist of an oblique case with its preposition: ad-modum, very, to the full measure; ob-viam, in the way.

2. Such as consist of a noun with its adjective: ho-die (hoc and die), today, on this day; qua-re, wherefore, by which thing.

3. Such as consist of two particles: ad-huc, hitherto; inter-dum, some-

times; in-super, moreover.

PART THIRD. SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

SECTION I.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

343. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

344. A sentence is thought expressed in language.

345. In their STRUCTURE, sentences are either Simple, Complex, or Compound:

I. A SIMPLE SENTENCE expresses but a single thought:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made the world. Cic.

II. A Complex Sentence expresses two (or more) thoughts so related that one is dependent upon the other:

Donec eris felix, multos numerabis amicos; So long as you are prosperous, you will number many friends. Ovid.

1. Clauses.—In this example two simple sentences, (1) "You will be prosperous," and (2) "You will number many friends," are so united that the first only specifies the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you are prosperous. The parts thus united are called Clauses or Members.

2. PRINCIPAL AND SUSCEPINATE.—The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself—multos numerābis amīcos—is called the Principal Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it—donec eris felix—is called the

Subordinate Clause.

III. A COMPOUND SENTENCE expresses two or more independent thoughts:

SoI ruit et montes umbrantur, The sun descends and the mountains are shaded. Virg.

346. In their use, sentences are either Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, or Exclamatory.

I. A Declarative Sentence has the form of an assertion:

Miltiades accūsātus est, Miltiades was accused. Nep.

II. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis non paupertatem extimescit, Who does not fear poverty? Cic

- 1. Interrogative Words.—Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word—either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the interrogative particles, ne, nonne, num:
- 1) Questions with ne ask for information: Scribitne, Is he writing? Ne is always thus appended to some other word. But ne appended to the principal verb often suggests the answer yes, while appended to any other word, it often suggests the answer no. It is sometimes appended to utrum, num. or an, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the clause after utrum:

Utrum taceamne, an praedicem, Shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

- 2) Questions with nonne expect the answer yes: Nonne scribit, Is he not writing? Non for nonne indicates surprise that there should be any doubt on the question: Non vides, Do you really not see?
 - 3) Questions with num expect the answer no: Num scribit, Is he writing?
 - '4) Questions with an. See 2.4) below.
- 5) The interrogative word is sometimes omitted, and sometimes numquid is used for num, and ecquid for ne or nonne: Ecquid vides, Do you not see?
- 2. Double Questions.—Double or disjunctive questions offer a choice or alternative, and generally take one of the following forms:
 - 1) The first clause has utrum, num, or ne, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, Is that your fault or ours? Cic.

2) The first clause omits the particle, and the second has an or ne:

Eloquar an sileam, Shall I utter it, or keep silence? Virg.

3) When the second clause is negative, the particle generally unites with the negative, giving annon or necne:

Sunt haec tua verba necne, Are these your words or not? Cic.

4) By the omission of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of an:

An hoc timemus, Or do we fear this? Liv.

- 5) Other forms are rare.
- 3. Answers.—In answers the verb or some emphatic word is usually repeated, often with prorsus, viro, and the like; or if negative, with non;

Dixitne causam? Dixit. Did he state the cause? He stated it. Cic. Possumusne tuti esse? Non possumus. Can we be safe? We cannot. Cic.

 Sometimes the simple particle is used; affirmatively, sane, étiam, ita, vêro, certe, etc., negatively, non, minime, etc.

Venitne? Non. Has he come? No. Plaut,

III. An IMPERATIVE SENTENCE has the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty:

Justitiam cole, Cultivate justice. Cic.

IV. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation:

Rělīquit quos viros, What heroes he has left! Cic.

Exclamatory sentences are often elliptical.

SECTION II.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

- 347. The simple sentence in its most simple form consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
 - 1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks.
 - 2. The PREDICATE, or that which is said of the subject: Cluilius moritur, Cluilius dies. Liv.

Here Cluilius is the subject, and moritur the predicate.

348. The simple sentence in its most expanded form consists only of these same parts with their various modifiers:

In his eastris Cluilius, Albānus rex, mŏrītur; Cluilius, the Alban king, dies in this camp. Liv.

Here Cluilius. Albanus rex, is the subject in its enlarged or modified form, and in his castris moritur is the predicate in its enlarged or modified form.

- 349. Principal and Subordinate.—The subject and predicate, being essential to the structure of every sentence, are called the *Principal* or *Essential* elements; but their modifiers, being subordinate to these, are called the *Subordinate* elements.
- 350. SIMPLE AND COMPLEX.—The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:
 - 1. Simple, when not modified by other words.
 - 2. Complex, when thus modified.

SIMPLE SUBJECT.

351. The subject of a sentence, expressed or implied, must be a noun or some word or words used as a noun:

Rex decrevit, The king decreed. Nep. Ego scribo, I write. Cic. V ĭdeo ĭdem vălet, The word video has the same meaning. Quint.

Complex Subject.

352. The subject admits the following modifiers:

I. An Adjective:

Pŏpŭlus $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}nus$ dẽcrevit, The Roman people decreed. Cic.

II. A Noun either in apposition with the subject, in the genitive, or in an oblique case with a preposition:

Cluilius rex moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Liv. Rex Ratalorum, the king of the Rutuli. Liv. Liber de officies, The book on duties. Cic.

- 1. Modifiers of Nouns .- Any noun may be modified like the subject.
- 2. Appositive and its Subject.—The noun in apposition with another is called an *Appositive*, and the other noun is called the *Subject* of the appositive.
- 3. Adverbs with Nouns.—Sometimes adverbs and adverbial expressions occur as modifiers of nouns:

Non ignāri sumus ante malorum, We are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Virg. Victoria apud Cnidum, The victory at Cnidus. Nep.

SIMPLE PREDICATE.

353. The simple predicate must be either a verb or the copula *sum* with a noun or adjective:

Miltiades est accūsātus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Tu es testis, You are a witness. Cic. Fortūna caeca est, Fortūne is blind. Cic.

- 1. Like Sum several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or adjective to form the predicate. See 362. 2. A noun or adjective thus used is called a Predicate Noun or Predicate Adjective.
 - 2. Sum with an Adverb sometimes forms the predicate: Omnia recte sunt, All things are right. Cic.

COMPLEX PREDICATE.

354. I. The Verb admits the following modifiers:

- I. OBJECTIVE MODIFIERS:
- A Direct Object in the Accusative—that upon which the action is directly exerted:

Miltiades Athēnas līberāvit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep.

2. An *Indirect Object* in the Dative—that to or for which something is or is done:

Lăbori student, They devote themselves to labor. Caes.

3. Combined Objects consisting of two or more cases:

Me rogavit sententiam, He asked me my opinion. Cic. Pons iter hostibus dedit, The bridge furnished a passage to the enemy. Liv.

- II. ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS:
- 1. Adverbs:

Bella feliciter gessit, He waged wars successfully. Cic.

2. Adverbial Expressions—consisting of oblique cases of nouns, with or without prepositions:

In his castris moritur, He dies (where?) in this camp. Liv. Vēre convēnēre, They assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.

- 355. II. The Predicate Noun is modified in the various ways specified for the subject (352).
- 356. III. The Predicate Adjective admits the following modifiers:

I. An Adverb:

Sătis humilis est, He is sufficiently humble. Liv.

II. A Noun in an oblique case:

Genitive: Avidi laudis fuērunt, They were desirous of praise. Cic.
 Dative: Omni aetāti mors est commūnis, Death is common to εvery age. Cic.

3. Ablative: Digni sunt ămīcătia, They are worthy of friendship. Cic.

SECTION III.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

357. A Complex sentence differs from a Simple one only in taking a sentence or clause as one (or more) of its elements:

I. A Sentence as an Element:

"Civis Romānus sum" audiēbātur, "I am a Roman citizen" was heard. Cic. Aliquis dicat mihi: "Nulla habes vitia;" Some one may say to me, "Have you no fau'ts?" Hor.

1. In the first example, an entire sentence—Civis Romānus sum—is used as the Subject of a new sentence; and in the second example, the sentence—Nulla habes vitia—is the Object of dicat.

2. Any sentence may be thus quoted and introduced without change of form as an element in a new sentence.

II. A Clause as an Element:

Trādītum est Hŏmērum caecum fuisse, That Homer was blind has been handed down by tradition. Cic. Quālis sit ănīmus, ănīmus nescit, The soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

- 1. In these examples the clauses used as elements have undergone certain changes to adapt them to their subordinate rank. The clause Homērum caecum fuisse, the subject of traditum est, if used as an independent sentence, would be Homērus caecus fuit; and the clause Qualis sit animus, the object of nescit, would be Qualis est animus, What is the soul?
 - 2. Forms of Subordinate Clauses.
 - 1) Infinitive with Subject Accusative:

Hoc majores dicere audivi, I have heard that our ancestors said this. Cic.

2) Indirect Questions:

Quid dies férat, incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic.

3) Relative Clauses:

Sententia, quae tütissima vidēbātur, The opinion which seemed the safest. Liv.

4) Clauses with Conjunctions:

Mos est ut dicat, It is his custom to speak. Cic. Priusquam lücet, adsunt, They are present before it is light. Cic.

358. Infinitive Clauses sometimes drop their subjects:

Dīlīgi jūcundum est, It is pleasant to be loved. Cic. Vīvčre est cōgītāre, To live is to think. Cic. Sec 545. 2.

359. Participles often supply the place of subordinate clauses.

Plăto scribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing, or while he was writing. Cic. See 576-578.

SECTION IV.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

- **360.** Compound sentences express two or more independent thoughts, and are of five varieties:
- I. Copulative Sentences—in which two or more thoughts are presented in harmony with each other:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, $\it The sun descends and the mountains are shaded. Virg.$

II. DISJUNCTIVE SENTENCES—in which a choice between two or more thoughts is offered:

Audendum est ăliquid aut omnia pătienda sunt, Something must be risked or all things must be endured. Liv.

III. ADVERSATIVE SENTENCES—in which the thoughts are opposed to each other:

Gyges a nullo vidēbātur, ipse autem omnia vidēbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

IV. ILLATIVE SENTENCES—which contain an inference:

Nihil lăbūras, ideo nihil hăbes; You do nothing, therefore you have nothing. Phaed.

V. Causal Sentences—which contain a cause or reason;

Difficile est consilium, sum čnim solus; Consultation is difficult, for I am alone. Cic.

- 1. The Connectives generally used in these several classes of compounds are the corresponding classes of conjunctions, i. e., copulative, disjunctive, adversative, illative, and causal conjunctions. Sec 310. But the connective is often omitted.
 - 2. DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS have special connectives. See 346. II. 2.
- 361. Compound sentences are generally abridged when their members have parts in common. Such sentences have compound elements:

1. Compound Subjects:

Aborigines Trojānīque ducem āmīsēre, The Aborigines and the Trojans lost their leader. Liv.

The two members here united are: Aborigines ducem amisere and Trojūni ducem amisere; but as they have the same predicate, ducem amisere, that predicate is expressed but once, and the two subjects are united into the compound subject: Aborigines Trojanique.

2. Compound Predicates:

Romani parant consultantque, The Romans prepare and consult. Liv.

3. Compound Modifiers:

Athenas Graeciamque līberāvit, He liberated Athens and Greece. Nep.

CHAPTER II.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

RULE I.-Predicate Nouns.

362. A Predicate Noun denoting the same person or thing as its Subject agrees with it in CASE:

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv. Servius rex est declaratus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Orestem se esse dixit, He said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 353.

- 1. In Gender and Number Agreement either may or may not take place. But
- 1) If the Predicate Noun has different forms for different genders, it must agree with its subject in gender:

Usus mägister est, Experience is an instructor. Cic. Història est mägistra (not magister), History is an instructress. Cic.

¹ Fer Pred. Noun denoting a different person or thing from its subject, see 401.For convenience of reference the Rules will be presented in a body on page 274.

- 2. WITH FINITE VERBS.—Predicate Nouns are most frequent
- 1) With Sum and a few intransitive verbs: ēvādo, exsisto, appūreo, and the like:

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv. Homo magnus cväscrat, He had become (turned out) a great man. Cic. Exstitit vindex libertatis, He became (stood forth) the defender of liberty. Cic.

2) With Passive verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, esteeming, and the like:

Servius rex est declaratus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Mundus civitas existimatur. The world is regarded as a state. Cic.

- (1) In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a great variety of significations. Thus with audio = appellor: Rex audisti, You have been called king; i. e., have heard yourself so called. Her.
 - (2) For Predicate Accusative, see 373. 1.
- (3) The Dative of the object for which (390), pro with the Abl., and loco or in numero with the Gen. are often kindred in force to Predicate Nouns: hosti, pro hoste, loco hostis, in numero hostium, for or as an enemy. See also Pred. Gen. 401.
- 3. WITH INFINITIVES, PARTICIPLES, ETC.—Predicate Nouns are used not only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and Participles, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Dēclārātus rex Núma, Numa having been declared king. Liv. Cānīnio consüle, Caninius being consul. Cic. See 431, also Orestem under the rule.

- 1) For Predicate Nominative after esse, see 547.
- 2) For Infinitive or Clause as Predicate, see 553, I.; 495, 3.

RULE II.—Appositives.

363. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case:

Cluilius rex moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Liv. Urbes Carthago atque Numantia, the cities Carthage and Numantia, Cic. See 352, 2.

- 1. In Gender and Number the appositive conforms to the same rule as the predicate noun. See 362. 1.
 - 2. The Subject of the appositive is often omitted:

Hostis hostem occidere võlui, I (ego understood) an enemy wished to slay an enemy. Liv.

3. Force of Appositives.—Appositives are generally kindred in force to Relative clauses, but sometimes to Temporal clauses:

Cluilius rex, Cluilius (who was) the king. Liv. Farius puer didicit, Furius learned, when a boy, or as a boy. Cie.

4. Partitive Appositive.—The parts are sometimes in apposition with the whole :

Duo reges, ille bello, hie pace civitatem auxerunt, Two kings advanced the state, the former by wear, the latter by peace. Liv.

Conversely the whole may be in apposition with its parts.

5. CLAUSES.—A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun. See 445, 7; 553, II.

SECTION II.

NOMINATIVE.

364. Cases.—Nouns have different forms or cases to mark the various relations in which they are used. These cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows:

I. Nominative,
II. Vocative,
III. Accusative,
IV. Dative,
V. Genitive,
VI. Ablative,
VII. Ablative,
VIII. Ablative

365. Kindred Cases.—The cases naturally arrange themselves in pairs: the Nominative and Vocative require no governing word; the Accusative and Dative are the regular cases of the Object of an action; the Genitive has usually the force of an Adjective, and the Ablative that of an Adverb.

366. Nominative.—The Nominative is either the Subject of a Sentence or in agreement with another Nominative.

RULE III.—Subject Nominative.

367. The Subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative:

Servius regnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv. Pătent portae, The gates are open. Cic. Rex vīcit, The king conquered. Liv.

1. The Subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively:

Ego rēges ejēci, I have banished kings. Cic.

- 2. Subject Omitted.—The subject is generally omitted
- 1) When it is a Personal Pronoun, unless expressed for contrast or emphasis, and when it can be readily supplied from the context:

Discipulos monco, ut studia ument, I instruct pupils to love their studies. Quint,

- 2) When it means men, people: Ferunt, They say.
- 3) When the verb is impersonal: Pluit, It rains.
- 3. Verr Omitted.—The Verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially est and sunt:

¹ This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the cases, because, it is thought, it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.

² For the Subject of the Infinitive, see 545. For the agreement of the verb with its subject, see 460.

Ecce tuae littérae, Lo your letter (comes). Cic. Tot sententiae, There are (sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul profectus (est), The consul set out. Liv.

- 1) Făcio is often omitted in short sentences and clauses. Thus with nihil âliud (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, nihil praeterquam = merely, si nihil âliud, *finem, etc.: Nihil âliud quam steterunt, They merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv. Also in brief expressions of opinion: Recte ille, He does rightly. Cic.
- 368. AGREEMENT.—A Nominative in agreement with another nominative is either a Predicate Noun or an Appositive. See 362 and 363.

For the Predicate Nominative after a verb with esse, see 547.

SECTION III.

VOCATIVE.

RULE IV.-Case of Address.

369. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Laeli, Proceed, Laclius. Cic. Quid est, Cătilina, Why is it, Catiline? Cic. Tuum est, Servi, regnum, The kingdom is yours, Servius. Liv. O dii immortales, O immortal gods. Cic.

- 1. WITH INTERJECTIONS.—The vocative is used both with and without interjections.
- 2. Nominative for Vocative.—In poetry and sometimes in prose, the nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the vocative:

Audi tu, põpälus Albānus, *Hear ye*, *Alban people*: Liv. Here *popülus* may be treated as a Nom. in apposition with tu, though it may also be treated as an irregular Voc. See 45. 5. 3).

3. Vocative for Nominative.—Conversely the vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab oris exspectate venis, From what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come? Virg.

SECTION IV.

ACCUSATIVE.

370. The Accusative is used

I. As the Direct Object of an Action.

II. As the Subject of an Infinitive.

III. In Agreement with another Accusative.

IV. In an Adverbial Sense—with or without Prepositions.
V. In Exclamations—with or without Interjections.

I. Accusative as Direct Object.

RULE V.—Direct Object.

371. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made the world. Cic. Līběra rem publicam, Free the republic. Cic. Pŏpŭli Rōmāni sălūtem dēfendīte, Defend the safety of the Roman people. Cic.

- 1. The DIRECT OBJECT may be
- The Object, person or thing, on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salūtem above.
- 2) The $\it Effect$ of the action, i. e., the object produced by it, as $\it mundum$ above.
- 3) The Cognate Accusative. Many verbs, generally intransitive, sometimes become so far transitive as to admit an accusative of cognate or kindred meaning:

Eam vîtam vîvěre, to live that life. Cic. Mîrum somniāre somnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plaut. Servîtūtem servīre, to serve a servitude. Ter.

- (1) This accusative is usually qualified by an adjective as in the first two examples.
- (2) Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives often supply the place of the Cognate accusative:

Eŭdem peceat, He makes the same mistakes. Cic. Hoc studet unum, He studies this one thing (this one study). Hor. Id assentior, I make this assent. Cic. Idem glüriüri, to make the same boast. Cic.

- (3) The object is often omitted when it is a reflexive (184, 2) or can be easily supplied: moveo = moveo me, I move (myself); vertit = vertit se, he moves (himself).
- (4) Some verbs are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive: augeo, dūro, incipio, laxo, ruo, suppėdito, turbo, etc.
- 2. WITH OR WITHOUT OTHER CASES.—The direct object may be used with all transitive verbs, whether with or without other cases. See 384, 410, 419.
- 3. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—Many verbs transitive in English are intransitive in Latin. See 385. Conversely some verbs intransitive in English are transitive in Latin, or at least are often so used, especially verbs denoting
- 1) Feeling or Mental State: despēro, to despair of; dēleo, to grieve for; gčmo, to sigh over; horreo, to shudder at; lācrīmo, to weep over; moereo, to mourn over; mīror, to wonder at; rīdeo, to laugh at; sǐtio, to thirst for, etc.

Hönöres despērat, He despairs of honors. Cie. Haec gemēbant, They were sighing over these things. Cie. Dētrimenta rīdet, He laughs at losses. Hor.

2) Taste or Smell: ¿¿leo, săpio, and their compounds, both literally and figuratively:

Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Orātio rědělet antīquitātem, The oration smacks of antiquity. Cic.

- 4. Compounds of Prepositions.—We notice two classes:
- 1) Many compounds become transitive by the force of the prepositions with which they are compounded, especially compounds of circum, per, praeter, trans, super, and subter:

Murmur concionem perväsit, A murmur went through the assembly. Liv. Rhenum transierunt, They crossed (went across) the Rhine, Caes.

2) Many compounds, without becoming strictly transitive, admit an Accus. dependent upon the preposition:

Circumstant senatum, They stand around the senate. Cic.

5. Clause as Object.—An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as Direct Object:

Impěrāre căpiunt, They desire to rule. Just. Sentīmus călēre ignem, We perceive that jire is hot. Cic.

- 6. Passive Construction.—When a verb takes the passive construction
- 1) The direct object of the active becomes the subject of the passive, and
- 2) The subject of the active becomes the Ablative of Cause (414) or the Ablative of Agent with a or ab (414.5).

Thebani Lysandrum occiderunt, The Thebans slew Lysander. Passive: Lysander occisus est a Thebanis, Lysander was slain by the Thebans. Nep.

7. Accusative in Special Instances.—Participles in *dus*, verbal adjectives in *bundus*, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, occur with the accusative:

Vītābundus castra, avoiding the camp. Liv. Quid tībi hanc cūrātio est rem, What care have you of this? Plaut.

- 372. Two Accusatives.—Two accusatives without any connective, expressed or understood, may depend upon the same verb. They may denote
 - The same person or thing.
 Different persons or things.

Any number of accusatives connected by conjunctions, expressed or understood, may of course depend upon the same verb.

RULE VI.-Two Accusatives-Same Person.

373. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:

Hămileărem impěratorem fecerunt, They made Hamilear commander. Nep. Aneum regem populus creavit, The people elected Aneus king. Liv. Summum consilium appellarunt Senatum, They called their highest council Senate. Cic. Se praestitit propugnatorem libertatis, He showed himself the champion of liberty. Cic. Flaccum hăbuit collegam, He had Flaccus as colleague. Nep.

- 1. Predicate Accessive.—One of the two accusatives is the *Direct Object*, and the other an essential part of the Predicate. The latter may be called a *Predicate Accusative*. See 362. 2. (2).
- 2. Verbs with Predicate Accusative.—The verbs which most frequently admit a Direct Object with a Predicate Accusative are verbs of

1) Making, electing: făcio, efficio, reddo,-creo, eligo, designo, declaro.

2) Calling, regarding: appello, nōmino, vòro, dico,—arbitror, existimo, dūco, jūdico, hābeo, pūto.

3) Showing: praesto, praebeo, exhibeo.

3. Adjective as Predicate Accusative.—The Predicate Accusative may be either Substantive or Adjective :

Homines eaccos reddit avaritia, Avarice renders men blind. Cic.

4. Passive Construction.—In the Passive these verbs take two Nominatives, a Subject and Predicate, corresponding to the two Accusatives of the Active:

Servius rex est deelārātus, Servius was declared king. Liv. See 362. 2. 2.)

RULE VII.—Two Accusatives—Person and Thing.

374. Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives in the Active, and one in the Passive:

Me sententiam rŏgāvit, He asked me my opinion. Cic. Ego sententiam rŏgātus sum, I was asked my opinion. Cic. Phìlŏsŏphia nos res omnes dŏcuit, Philosophy has taught us all things. Cic. Artes ēdoctus fuĕrat, He had been taught the arts. Liv. Non te eĕlāvi sermōnem, I did not conceal from you the conversation. Cic.

1. Person and Thing.—One accusative generally designates the *person*, the other the *thing*: with the Passive the accusative of the Person becomes the subject and the accusative of the thing is retained: see examples.

2. Veres with two Accusatives.—Those most frequently so

used are

1) Regularly: celo-doceo, edoceo, dedoceo.

2) Sometimes: ōro, exōro, rŏgo, interrŏgo, percontor, flagito, posco, rŏposco.

3. Other Constructions also occur:

1) Celo: Ablative with a preposition:

Me de hoc libro celăvit, He kept me ignorant of this book. Cic. Passive: Accus. of Neuter pronoun or Abl. with de: Hoc celări, to be kept ignorant of this. Ter. Celări de consilio, to be kept ignorant of the plan. Cic. The Dative is rare: Id Aleibiădi celări non potuit. This could not be concealed from Aleibiades. Nep.

2) Verbs of Teaching: Ablative with or without a preposition:

De sua re me dicet; He informs me in regard to his case. Cic. Sõcrätem fidibus dõcuit, He taught Socrates (with) the lyre. Cic.

3) Verbs of Asking, Demanding: Ablative with a preposition:

Hoc a me poscère, to demand this from me. Cic. Te iisdem de rebus interrogo, I ask you in regard to the same things. Cic.

4) Pēto, postŭlo, and quaero take the Ablative of the person with a preposition:

Pācem a Rōmānis pětiērunt, They asked peace from the Romans. Caes.

4. Infinitive or Clause as Accusative of thing:

Te săpěre docet, He teaches you to be wise. Cic.

5. A NEUTER PRONOUN or ADJECTIVE as a second accusative occurs with many verbs which do not otherwise take two accusatives:

Hoc te hortor, I exhort you to this, I give you this exhortation. Cic. Ea monemur, We are admonished of these things. Cic.

6. Compound Verbs.—A few compounds of trans, circum, ad, and in admit two accusatives, dependent the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition:

Ibërum copias trajecit, He led his forces across the Ebro. Liv.

In the Passive, not only these, but even other compounds sometimes admit an ${\bf Accus.}$ depending upon the preposition:

Praetervéhor ostia Pantagiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagia, Virg.

7. Poetic Accusative.—In poetry, rarely in prose, verbs of clothing, unclothing—induo, exuo, cingo, accingo, induco, etc., sometimes take in the Passive an accusative in imitation of the Greek:

Găleam induïtur, He puts on his helmet. Virg. Inūtīle ferrum cingītur, He girds on his useless sword. Virg. Virgīnes longam indūtae vestem, maidens attired in long robes. Liv.

II. Accusative as Subject of Infinitive.

375. The Accusative is used as the Subject of an Infinitive; see 545:

Plătonem ferunt in Italiam venisse, They say that Plato came into Italy. Cic.

Platonem is the subject of renisse.

III. ACCUSATIVE IN AGREEMENT WITH AN ACCUSATIVE.

376. The Accusative in agreement with another Accusative is either a Predicate Noun or an Appositive:

Orestem se esse dixit, He said that he was Orestes. Cic. Apud Hērŏdŏtum, patrem histŏriae, in Herodotus, the father of history. Cic. See 362 and 363.

IV. Accusative in an Adverbial Sense.

- 377. In an Adverbial sense the Accusative is used either with or without Prepositions.
 - 1. WITH PREPOSITIONS. See 433.
- 2. WITHOUT PREPOSITIONS.—The Adverbial use of the Accusative without Prepositions is presented in the following rules.

RULE VIII.—Accusative of Time and Space.

378. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmŭlus septem et trīginta regnāvit annos, Romulus reigned thirtyseven years. Liv. Quinque millia passuum ambŭlāre, to walk five miles. Cie. Pĕdes oetōginta distāre, to be eighty feet distant. Caes. Nix quattuor pĕdes alta, snow four feet deep. Liv. But

- 1. Duration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Ablative or the Accusative with a Preposition:
- 1) By the Ablative: Pugnātum est hōris quinque, The battle was fought five hours. Caes.

2) By the Accusative with Preposition: Per annos viginti certatum est, The war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

The war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

2. Distance is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Millibus passuum sex consedit, He encamped at the distance of six miles. Caes. Sometimes with a preposition: Ab millibus passuum dubbus, at the distance of two miles. Caes.

RULE IX.-Accusative of Limit.

379. The Name of a Town used as the Limit of motion is put in the Accusative:

Nuntius Rōmam rĕdit, The messenger returns to Rome. Liv. Plăto Tărentum vēnit, Plato eame to Tarentum. Cic. Fūgit Tarquĭnios, He fled to Tarquinii. Cic. But

- 1. The Accusative with Ad occurs:
- In the sense of to, toward, in the direction of, into the vicinity of:
 Tres sunt viae ad Mutinam, There are three roads to Mutina. Cic. Ad
 Zămam pervēnit, He came to the vicinity of Zama. Sall.
 - 2) In contrast with a or ab:
 - A Dianio ad Sinopen, from Dianium to Sinope. Cic.
 - 2. Urbs or Oppidum with a Preposition:

Pervēnit in oppidum Cirtam, He came into the town of Cirta. Sall.

3. Like Names of Towns are used

1) The Accusatives domum, domos, rus:

Scipio domum reductus est, Scipio was conducted home. Cic. Domos abducti, led to their homes. Liv. Rus evolure, to hasten into the country. Cic.

2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of Islands and Peninsulas:

Latona confugit Delum, Latona fied to Delos. Cic. Pervenit Chersonesum, He went to the Chersonesus. Nep.

4. Names of Other Places used as the limit of motion are generally in the Accusative with a Preposition:

In Asiam rědit, He returns into Asia. Nep.

But the preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns:

Aegyptum pröfügit, He fled to Egypt. Cic. Ităliam vēnit, He came to Italy. Virg. Ibīmus Afros, We shall go to the Africans. Virg. Lāvīnia vēnit lītora, He came to the Lavinian shores. Virg.

5. A Poetic Dative for the accusative with or without a preposition occurs:

It clamor coelo (for ad coelum), The shout ascends to heaven. Virg.

RULE X.—Accusative of Specification.

380. A Verb or Adjective may take an Accusative to define its application:

Căpita velămur, We have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads). Virg. Nube humeros ămictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud, Hor. Miles fractus membra lăbore, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aeneas os deo similis, Aeneas like a god in appearance. Virg.

1. In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is mostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See 429.

2. In a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, vicem, nihil, of id and genus in id tempéris, id actātis (at this time, age), id genus, omne genus, quod genus (for ejus generis, etc.), etc.; also of secus, libra and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives; hoc, illud, id, quid (454, 2), multum, summum, cetéra, reliqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose.

Maximam partem lacte vivunt, They live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk. Caes. Nihil moti sunt, They were not at all moved. Liv. Locus id temporis vacuus orat, The place was at this time vacant. Cic. Aliquid id genus scribere, to write something of this kind. Cic. Quaerit, quid possint, Its inquires how powerful they are. Caes. Quid venis, Why do you come?

V. Accusative in Exclamations.

RULE XI.-Accusative in Exclamations.

381. The Accusative either with or without an Interjection may be used in Exclamations:

Heu me miserum, Ah me unhappy! Cic. Me miserum, Me miserable! \(^1\) Cic. O fallacem spem, O deceptive hope! Cic. Me caecum, Blind that 1 am! Cic. Pro deorum fidem, In the name of the gods! Cic. But

- 1. An Adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this accusative, as in the examples.
- 2. O, ēheu, heu are the Interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others occur.
 - 3. Other Cases also occur in exclamations:
 - 1) The Vocative-when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Pro sancte Jüpiter, O holy Jupiter. Cic. Infelix Dido, Unhappy Dido. Virg.

2) The Nominative—when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement: En dextra, Lo the right hand (there is, or that is the right hand)! Virg. Ecce tuae litterae, Lo your letter (comes)! Cic.

3) The Dative-to designate the person after hei, vae, and sometimes after ecce,

en, hem .

Hei mihi, Woe to me. Virg. Vae tibi, Woe to you. Ter. Ecce tibi, Lo to you (lo here is to you = observe). Cic. En tibi, This for you (lo I do this for you). Liv. See 353. 2.

SECTION V.

DATIVE.

- 382. The Dative is the Case of the Indirect Object, and is used
 - I. With Verbs.
 - II. With Adjectives.
 - III. With their Derivatives—Adverbs and Substantives.

I. DATIVE WITH VERBS.

383. Indirect Object.—A verb is often attended by a noun designating the object indirectly affected by the action, that to or for which something is or is done. A noun thus used is called an Indirect Object.

RULE XII.—Dative with Verbs.

384. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative:

I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Tempŏri cēdit, He yields to the time. Cic. Sībi tīmuĕrant, They had feared for themselves. Caes. Lăbōri student, They devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deo pāret, The world obeys God.² Cic. Caesări supplicabo, I will supplicate Caesar.³ Cic. Nōbis vīta dăta est, Life has

¹ Milton, Par. Lost, iv. 73

² Is subject to God.

³ Will make supplication to Caesar.

been granted to us. Cic. Nămitôri dêditur, He is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. With Transitive Verbs, in connection with the Accusative:

Pons iter hostibus dědit, The bridge gave a passage to the enemy. Liv. Lēges cīvitātībus suis scripsērunt, They prepared laws for their states. Cic.

1. Double Construction.—A few verbs admit (1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: alieui rem dōnāre, to present a thing to any one, or aliquem re dōnāre, to present any one with a thing. For the Dat. of the person, the Dat. of a thing sometimes occurs, especially if it involves persons or is in a measure personified:

Murum urbi circumdedit, He surrounded the city with a wall. Nep.

This double construction occurs chiefly with: aspergo, circumdo, circumfundo, dōno, exuo, impertio, induo, inspergo, interclūdo.

2. To and For are not always signs of the Dative: thus

1) To, denoting mere motion or direction, is generally expressed by the

Accusative with or without a preposition (379. and 379. 4):

Vēni ad urbem, I came to the city. Cic. Dēlum vēnīmus, We came to Delos. Cic. But the Dative occurs in the poets: It clāmor coelo, The shout goes to heaven. Virg.

2) For, in defence of, in behalf of, is expressed by the Abl. with pro;

for the sake of, for the purpose of, sometimes by the Accus. with in.

Pro patria mori, to die for one's country. Hor. Dimicare pro libertate,

to fight for liberty. Cic. Satis in usum, enough for use. Liv.

- 3. Other English Equivalents.—Conversely the dative is often used where the English either omits to or for, or employs some other preposition. We proceed to specify the cases in which this difference of idiom requires notice.
- 385. The Dative of Advantage and Disadvantage is used with verbs signifying to benefit or injure, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist; also, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, persuade, and the like:

Sībi prōsunt, They benefit themselves. Cic. Nŏcēre altěri, to injure another. Cic. Zēnōni plăcuit, It pleased Zeno. Cic. Displicet Tullo, It displeases Tullus. Liv. Cǔpĭdǐtātībus impĕrāre, to command desires. Cic. Deo pārēre, to obey God. Cic. Rēgi servīre, to serve the king. Cic. Hostībus rĕsistĕre, to resist the enemy. Caes. Sībi indulgēre, to indulge one's self. Cic. Vītae pareĕre, to spare life. Nep. Mihi ignoscēre, to pardon me. Cic. Mīnītans patriae, threatening his country. Liv. Irasei ămīcis, to be angry with friends. Cic. Mihi crēde, Believe me. Cic. Iis persuādēre, to persuade them. Caes.

- Other Cases.—Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: delecto, juvo, laedo, offendo, etc.; fido and confido generally the Ablative (419): Mărium juvit, He helped Marius. Nep.
- 2. Special Verbs.—With a few verbs the force of the dative is found only by attending to the strict meaning of the verb: $n\bar{u}bo$, to marry, strictly to veil one's self, as the bride for the bridegroom; $m\bar{e}deor$, to cure, to administer a remedy to; $s\bar{u}tisf\bar{u}cio$, to satisfy, to do enough for, etc.
- 2. Accusative or Dative with a difference of signification: cărēre ăliquem, to ward off some one; cărēre ăliqui, to care for some one; consultere ăliquem, to consult, etc.; ălicui, to consult for; mētuēre, timēre ăliquem, to fear, etc.; ălicui, to fear for; prospicere, providere ăliquid, to foresee; ălicui, to provide for; tempērāre, modērāri ăliquid, to govern, direct; ălicui, to restrain, put a check upon; tempērāre (sibi) ab ăliquo, to abstain from.

A few verbs admit either the Acc. or Dat, without any special difference of meaning: \(\delta d\vec{u}dvlor\), to flatter; \(\cdot comittor\), to accompany, etc.

4. Dative rendered From, occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away: differo, discrepo, disto, dissentio, arceo, etc..

Differre cuivis, to differ from any one. Nep. Discrepare istis, to differ from those. Hor. Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cic. See 412.

5. Dative rendered With, occurs with misceo, admisceo, permisceo, jungo, certo, dicerto, lucto, altercor, and sometimes facio (434. 2):

Severitatem miscere comitati, to unite severity with affability. Liv.

Misceo and its compounds, as also junctus and conjunctus, also take the Abl. with or without cum.

386. Dative with Compounds.—The dative is used with many verbs compounded with the prepositions:

ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, sub, super:

Adsum ămīcis, I am present with my friends. Cic. Omnībus antestāre, to surpass all. Cic. Terris cohaeret, It cleaves to the earth. Sen. Völuptāti inhaerēre, to be connected with pleasure. Cic. Interfuit pugnae, He participated in the battle. Nep. Consīliis obstāre, to oppose plans. Nep. Lībertāti ŏpes postferre, to sacrifice wealth to liberty. Liv. Pŏpŭlo praesunt, They rule the people. Cic. Succumbĕre dŏlōrībus, to yield to sorrows. Cic. Sŭperfuit patri, He survived his father. Liv.

- 1. Transitive Verbs thus compounded admit both the Accusative and Dative: Se opposuit hostibus, He opposed himself to the enemy. Cic.
- 2. Compounds of other Prepositions, especially ab, de, ex, pro, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Abl.: assuesco, consuesco, insuesco, acquiesco, supersédeo (also with Acc.), etc.

Hoc Caesari defuit, This failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Caes.

3. Motion on Direction.—Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative or repeat the preposition:

Adire was, to approach the altars. Cic. Ad consules adire, to go to the consule. Cic.

In some instances where no motion is expressed, several of these compounds admit some other construction for the Dative:

In oratore inest scientia, In the orator is knowledge. Cic.

387. The Dative of Possessor is used with the verb Sum:

Mihi est noverca, I have (there is to me) a stepmother. Virg. Fonti nomen Arethusa est, The fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arethusa. Cic. But

1. The Dative of the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming: $n\bar{v}m\epsilon n$ ϵst , $nom\epsilon n$ $d\bar{u}tur$, etc.:

Scīpioni Africano cognomen fuit, Scipio had the surname Africanus. Sall. Here Africano, instead of being in apposition with cognomen, is put by attraction in apposition with Scipioni.

2. The Genitive of the Name dependent upon nomen occurs:

Nomen Mercurii est mihi, I have the name of Mercury. Plaut.

3. By a GREEK IDIOM, vilens, cupiens, or invitus sometimes accompanies the dative of possessor:

Quibus bellum võlentībus črat, They liked the war (it was to them wishing). Tac.

388. Dative of Agent.—The Dative of Agent is used with the Participle in dus:

Suum cuique incommŏdum ferendum est, Every one has his own trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

1. Dative with Compound Tenses.—The Dative of the Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mihi consilium captum jam diu est, I have a plan long since formed. Cic.

- The Dative of Agent, with the Participle in dus, as in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the Compound Tenses of passive verbs, it designates the person who has the work already done. See examples above.
- 2) Habeo with the Perfect Participle has the same force as EST MINI with the Perfect Participle (388, 1):

Bellum håbnit indictum, He had a war (already) declared. Cic.

3) The Ablative with a or ab occurs:

Est a vobis consulendum, Measures must be taken by you. Cic.

- 2. The Real Agent with Passive verbs is denoted by the Ablative with a or ab. The Dative, though the regular construction with the Passive Periphrastic conjugation, does not regard the person strictly as agent, but rather as possessor or indirect object. Thus, Suum cuique incommodum est, means, Every one has his trouble (cuique Dative of Possessor), and Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, Every one has his trouble to bear. So too, Mihi consilium est, I have a plan; Mihi consilium captum est. I have a plan (already) formed.
- 3. Dative with Simple Tenses.—The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and for (70) whom the action is performed:

Hŏnesta bŏnis vĭris quaeruntur, Honorable things are sought by good men, i. e., for themselves. Cic.

4. Dative of Agent in Poets.—In the poets the Dative is often used for the Ablative with a or ab, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Non intelligor ulli, I am not understood by any one. Ovid.

389. Ethical Dative.—A Dative of the person to whom the thought is of special interest is often introduced into the Latin sentence when it cannot be imitated in English:

At tibi věnit ad me, But lo, he comes to me. Cic. Ad illa mihi intendat ănimum, Let him, I pray, direct his attention to those things. Liv. Quid mihi Celsus ăgit? What is my Celsus doing? Hor. But

- 1. The ETHICAL DATIVE is always a personal pronoun.
- 2. ETHICAL DATIVE with VOLO and INTERJECTIONS:
- With Volo: Quid vöbis vultis? What do you wish, intend, mean? Liv. Avārītia quid sībi vult, What does avarice mean, or what object can it have? Cic.
- 2) With Interjections: hei, vae and some others: Hei mihi, ah me. Virg. Vae tibi, Woe to you. Ter. See 351. 3. 3).

RULE XIII.-Two Datives-To which and For which.

390. Two Datives—the object to which and the object for which—occur with a few verbs:

I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Mălo est hominibus ăvāritia, Avarice is an evil to men (lit. is to men for an evil). Cic. Est mihi cūrac, It is a care to me. Cic. Domus dēdecori domino fit, The house becomes a disgrace to its owner. Cic. Vēnit Attīcis auxilio, He came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hoc illi trībuēbātur ignāviae, This was imputed to him as cowardice (for cowardice). Cic. Iis subsīdio missus est, He was sent to them as aid. Nep.

II. With Transitive Verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, He left five cohorts for the defence of the camp (lit. to the camp for a defence). Caes. Pericles agros suos dono rei publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit. for a present). Just.

1. Verbs with Two Datives are

1) Intransitives signifying to be, become, go, and the like; sum, fio, etc.

2) Transitives signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: do, dōno, dūco, hūbeo, mitto, rělinquo, tribuo, verto, etc. These take in the Active two datives with an accusative, but in the Passive two datives only, as the Accusative of the active becomes the subject of the passive. See 371.6.

2. One Dative Omitted.—One dative is often omitted or its place supplied by a Predicate Noun:

Ea sunt ūsui, These things are of use (for use). Caes. Tu illi păter es, You are

a father to him. Tac.

3. With Audiens two Datives sometimes occur, the Dat. dicto dependent upon audiens and a personal Dat. dependent upon dicto-audiens treated as a verb of obeying (385):

Dicto sum audiens, I am listening to the word, I obey. Plaut. Nöbis dicto audiens est, He is obedient to us. Cic. Sometimes dicto öbediens is used in the same

way: Magistro dicto obediens, obedient to his master. Plaut.

II. DATIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

RULE XIV.-Dative.

391. With Adjectives the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae solum omnibus carum est, The soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est tempori, This is adapted to the time. Cic. Omni aetāti mors est communis, Death is common to every age. Cic. Cănis similis lupo est, A dog is similar to a wolf. Cic. Năturae accommodatum, adapted to nature. Cic. Graeciae utile, useful to Greece. Nep.

1. Adjectives with Dative.—The most common are those signifying:

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning, and verbals in bilis.

Such are: accommodātus, aequālis, alienus, amīcus and inimīcus, aptus, cārus, fācilis and difficilis, fīdēlis and infidēlis, fīnītīmus, grātus and ingrātus, idoneus, jūcundus and injūcundus, molestus, necessārius, notus and ignotus, noxius, par and dispar, pernīciosus, propinquus, proprius, sālūtāris, sīmīlis and dissīmīlis, vīcīnus, etc.

- 2. Other Constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:
- 1) Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, erga, adversus with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Perindulgens in patrem, very kind to his father. Cic. Multas ad res perutilis, very useful for many things. Cic. Ad comitatem proclivis, inclined to affability. Cic. Pronus ad luctum, inclined to mourning. Cic.

2) Accusative without a Preposition with propior, proximus:

Propior montem, nearer the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to to the sea. Caes. See 433 and 437.

3) Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Alienum a vita mea, foreign to my life. Ter. Hömine älienissimum, most foreign to man. Cic. Ei cum Roscio communis, common to him and Roscius (with Roscius). Cic.

4) Genitive: (1) with proprius, commūnis, contrārius; (2) with similis,

dissimilis, assimilis, consimilis, par and dispar, especially to express likeness in character; (3) with adjectives used substantively, sometimes even in the superlative; (4) sometimes with affinis, ùliènus, insuitus, and a few others:

Pŏpŭli Rōmūni est propria lībertas, Liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic. Alexandri sĭmĭlis, like Alexander, i. e., in character. Cic. Dispar sui, unlike itself. Cic. Cujus păres, like whom. Cic. Amīcissĭmus hŏmīnum, the best friend of the men, i. e., the most friendly to them. Cic.

3. Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets:

Idem făcit occīdenti, He does the same as kill, or as he who kills. Hor.

4. For the GENITIVE AND DATIVE with an adjective, see 399. 6.

III. DATIVE WITH DERIVATIVE NOUNS AND ADVERBS.

RULE XV.-Dative.

392. A few Derivative Nouns and Adverbs take the Dative after the analogy of their primitives:

I. VERBAL NOUNS.—Justitia est obtemperatio legibus, Justice is obcdience to laws. Cic. Sibi responsio, replying to himself. Cic. Opulento homini servitus dura est, Serving a rich man (servitude to) is hard. Plaut.

II. Adverds.—Congruenter nätūrae vīvěre, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. Sibi constanter dicere, to speak consistently with himself. Cic. Proxime hostium castris, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

1. Dative with Nouns.—Nouns construed with the Dative are derived from verbs which govern the Dative. With other nouns the Dative is generally best ex-

plained as dependent upon some verb, expressed or understood:

Tégimenta galeis milites facére jubet, He orders the soldiers to make coverings for their helmets. Caes. Here galeis is probably the indirect object of facére and not dependent upon tegimenta. In conspectum vēnérat hostibus, He had come in sight of the enemy. Caes. Here hostibus is dependent not upon conspectum, but upon venérat; the action, coming in sight, is conceived of as done to the enemy. See 898. 5.

2. Dative with Adverses.—A few adverbe not included in the above rule occur with the Dative; huic ūna = ūna cum hoc, with him.

SECTION VI.

GENITIVE.

393. The Genitive in its primary meaning denotes source or cause, but in its general use, it corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations.

1. But sometimes, especially when Objective (306, II.), the Genitive is best rendered by to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:

Běněfícii grātia, gratitude for a favor. Cic. Lăborum fuga, escapa from labors. Cic.

394. The Genitive is used

I. With Nouns.

II. With Adjectives. III. With Verbs.

IV. With Adverbs.

I. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

RULE XVI.-Genitive.

395. Any Noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive:

Cătonis orationes, Cato's orations. Cic. Castra hostium, the camp of the enemy. Liv. Mors Hamilearis, the death of Hamilear. Liv. Deum metus, the fear of the gods. Liv. Vir consilii magni, a man of great prudence, Caes. See 363.

- 396. Varieties of Genitive with Neuns.—The principal varieties of the Genitive are the following:
- I. The Subjective Genitive designates the subject or agent of the action, feeling, etc., including the author and possessor:

Serpentis morsus, the bite of the serpent. Cic. Pavor Numidarum, the fear of the Numidians. Liv. Xenophontis libri, the books of Xenophon. Cic. Fānum Neptūni, the temple of Neptune. Nep.

II. The Objective Genitive designates the object toward which the action or feeling is directed:

Amor gloriae, the love of glory. Cic. Měmoria mălorum, the recollection of sufferings. Cic. Deum metus, the fear of the gods. Liv.

III. The Partitive Genitive designates the whole of which a part is taken:

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Vitae pars, a part of life. Cic. Omnium săpientissimus, the wisest of all men. Cic.

- 1. Nostrum and Vestrum.—As partitive genitives, nostrum and vestrum are generally used instead of nostri and vestri.
 - 2. Use.—The Partitive Genitive is used
- 1) With pars, nemo, nihil; nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc.: modius, legio, talentum, and any nouns used partitively :

Equorum pars, a part of the horses. Liv. Medimnum tritici, a bushel of wheat. Cic. Pécuniae tălentum, a talent of money. Nep. Quorum Caius, of whom Caius. Cic.

2) With Numerals used Substantively:

Quorum quattuor, four of whom. Liv. Săpientum octavus, the eighth of the wise men. Hor.

- (1) But the Genitive should not be used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English: Vivi qui (not quorum) duo supersunt, the living, of whom two survive. Cic.
- 3) With Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, especially (1) with hic, ille, quis, qui, alter, üter, neuter, etc.; (2) with comparatives and superlatives; (3) with neuters: hoc, id, illud, quid; multum, plus, plurimum, minus, minimum, tantum, quantum, etc.; (4) with omnes and cuncti, rarely:

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Consulum alter, one of the consuls. Liv. Prior horum, the former of these. Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes. Id temporis, that (of) time. Cic. Multum operae, much (of) service. Cic. Hominum cuncti, all of the men. Ovid. But omnes and cuncti generally agree with their nouns: Omnes homines, all men. Cic.

Pronouns and Adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Part. Gen. take the gender of the Gen. unless they agree directly with some other word; see Consulum alter above.

4) With a few Adverbs used substantively; (1) with adverbs of Quantity—abunde, affatim, nimis, parum, partim, quoad, sătis, etc.; (2) with adverbs of Place—lie, hue, nusquam, ŭbi, etc.; (3) with adverbs of Extent, degree, etc.—co, hue, quo; (4) with superlatives:

Armörum affătim, abundance of arms. Liv. Lūcis nımıs, too much (of) light. Ovid. Săpientiae părum, little (of) wisdom. Sall. Partim cöpiārum, a portion of the forces. Liv. Quoad ejus făcere potest, as far as (as much of it as) he is able to do. Cic. Nusquam gentium, nowhere in the world. Cic. Hue arrogantiae, to this degree of insolence. Tac. Maxıme omnium, most of all. Cic.

3. $L\check{v}ei$ and $l\check{v}e\bar{v}rum$ occur as partitive genitives in expressions of time:

Interea loci, in the mean time. Ter. Adhue locorum, hitherto. Plaut.

- 4. For id genus = ejus generis, secus, libra, etc., see 380. 2.
- 5. For Predicate Genitive, see 401.

IV. The Genitive of Characteristic designates character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

Vir maximi consilii, a man of very great prudence. Nep. Mītis ingĕnii jŭvĕnis, a youth of mild disposition. Liv. Vestis magni prĕtii, a garment of great value. Cic. Exsilium dĕcem annōrum, an exile of ten years. Nep. Cŏrōna parvi pondĕris, a crown of small weight. Liv. See 402, III. 1.

1. A noun designating character or quality may be either in the Gen. or in the Abl. See 428.

- 1) But it must be accompanied by an adjective, numeral, or pronoun, unless it be a compound containing such modifier; as hujusmödi = hujus modi: tridui, from tres dies; bidui, from duo (bis) dies. With tridui and bidui, via or spätium is sometimes omitted: Abčrant bidui, They were two days' journey distant. Cic.
- V. The Genitive of Specification has the general force of an Appositive (363):

Virtus continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Verbum võluptātis, the word (of) pleasure. Cic. Oppidum Antiŏchīae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellus Ausŏniae, the land of Ausonia. Virg.

397. Peculiarities.—We notice the following:

1. The Governing Word is often omitted. Thus

Aedes, templum, discipălus, homo, jūvenis, puer, etc.; causa, grātia, and indeed any word when it can be readily supplied:

Ad Jövis (sc. aedem), near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hannibal annorum novem (sc. puer), Hannibal a boy nine years of age. Liv. Naves sui commodi (causa) fecerat, He had built vessels for his own advantage. Caes. Conferre vitam Trebonii cum Dolabellae (sc. vita), to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella. Cic.

1) The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before another Gen. as in the last example; and then the second Gen. is sometimes attracted into the case of the governing word: Natūra hominis bēluis (for beluūrum natūrae) antecēdit, The nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

2) In many cases where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis

is only apparent, the Gen. depending directly on the proper nonn expressed:

Hasdrübal Gisconis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, or Hasdrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache, or Andromache the wife of Hector. Virg.

2. Two Generally one Subjective and one Objective:

Memmii ŏdium pŏtentiae, Memmius's hatred of power. Sall.

3. Genitive and Possessive.—A Genitive sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Gen. of ipse, solus, ūnus, omnis:

Tua ipsīus ămīcītia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sõlīus peccătum, my fault alone. Cic. Nõmen meum absentis, my name while absent. Cic.

Here ipsius agrees with tui (of you) involved in tua; solius and absentis, with mei (of me) involved in meum.

398. Other Constructions—for the Genitive occur.

- 1. Ablative of Characteristic. See 428.
- 2. An Adjective is sometimes used for the Genitive:

Bellĭca glōria = belli glōria, the glory of war. Cic. Conjux Hectŏrea = conjux Hectŏris, the wife of Hector. Virg.

3. The Possessive is regularly used for the Subjective Gen. of Personal pronouns, rarely for the Objective:

Mea domus, my house. Cic. Fama tua, your fame. Cic.

4. Case with Preposition.—A case with a preposition may be used for the Gen.; especially, 1) For the Objective Genitive, the Accusative with in, erga, adversus:—2) For the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with inter, ante, apud, or the Ablative with ex, de, in:

Odium in höminum gënus, hatred of or towards the race of men. Cic. Erga vos amor, love towards you. Cic. Inter reges opulentissimus, the most wealthy of (among) kings. Sen. Unus ex viris, one of the heroes. Cic.

5. A Dative depending on the verb is sometimes used, instead of the Genitive depending on a noun :

Urbi fundamenta jăcere, to lay the foundations of (for) the city. Liv. Caesari ad pedes projicere, to cast at the feet of Caesar, i. e., before Caesar at his feet. Caes. Sec 392. 1.

1) The two constructions, the Gen. and the Case with Prep., are sometimes combined in the same sentence.

II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

RULE XVII.-Genitive.

399. Many Adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic. Otii căpidus, desirous of leisure. Liv. Amans sui virtus, virtue fond of itself. Cic. Efficiens voluptătis, productive of pleasure. Cic. Gloriae měmor, mindful of glory. Liv.

- 1. Force of this Genitive.—The genitive here retains its usual force—of, in respect of—and may be used after adjectives which admit this relation.
 - 2. Adjectives with the Genitive.—The most common are
 - 1) Verbals in ax and participles in ans and ens used adjectively:

Virtūtum fĕrax, productive of virtues. Liv. Tĕnax prōpŏsĭti, tenacious (steadfast) of purpose. Hor. Amans patriae, loving (fond of) his country. Cic. Fŭgiens lăbōris, shunning labor. Caes.

- 2) Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, skill, recollection, participation, mastery, fulness, and their contraries:
- (1) Desire, Aversion—ăvidus, căpidus, stădiōsus; fastīdiōsus, etc.; sometimes aemūlus and invidus, which also take the Dative:

Contentionis cupidus, desirous of contention. Cic. Săpientiae studious, studious of (student of) wisdom. Cic.

(2) Knowledge, Skill, Recollection with their contraries—gnārus,

ignārus, consultus, conscius, inscius, nescius, certus, incertus, suspensus; providus, prūdens, imprūdens; peritus, imperitus, rūdis, insuetus; memor, immemor, etc.:

Rei gnārus, acquainted with the thing. Cic. Prūdens rei mīlītāris, skilled in military science. Nep. Pěrītus belli, skilled in war. Nep. Insuētus lăbūris, unaccustomed to labor. Caes. Glūriae měmor, mindful of glory. Liv. Imměmor běněficii, forgetful of kindness. Cic.

(3) Participation, Fulness, Mastery, with their contraries—affinis, consors, expors, particeps; plenus, fertilis, refertus, eyenus, inops, vucuus;

potens, impotens, compos, impos, etc.:

Affinis culpae, sharing the fault. Cic. Rătionis particeps, endowed with (sharing) reason. Cic. Rătionis expers, destitute of reason. Cic. Vita motus plena, a life full of fear. Cic. Mei potens sum, I am master of myself. Liv. Virtutis compos, capable of virtue. Cic.

3. Other Adjectives also occur with the Genitive.

1) A few of a signification kindred to the above:

Mănifestus rērum căpitālium, conticted of capital crimes. Sall. Noxius conjūrātionis, guilty of conspiracy. Tac.

2) Similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis; par and dispar, especially

to denote internal or essential likeness. See 391. 2. 4).

3) Sometimes ălienus, communis, proprius, publicus, săcer, vicinus:

Alienus dignitātis, inconsistent with dignity. Cic. Viri proprius, characteristic of a man. Cic.

4) In the poets and late prose writers, especially Tacitus, a Genitive of Cause occurs with a few adjectives, especially those denoting emotion or feeling, and a Gen. having the force of—in, in respect of, for, especially animi and ingenii, with many adjectives:

Anxius pŏtentiae, anxious for power. Tac. Lassus mīlītiae, tired of military service. Hor. See Gen. with Verbs, 409. 2 and 4. Aeger ănimi, afflicted in mind. Liv. Anxius ănimi, anxious in mind. Sall. Integer aevi, whole in respect of age, i. e., in the bloom of youth. Virg.

- 4. Partitive Genitive with Adjectives. See 396. III. 3).
- 5. Other Constructions for the Genitive also occur:
- Dative: Mănus săbitis ăvidae, hands ready for sudden events. Tac. Insuētus moribus Romānis, unaccustomed to Roman manners. Liv. Făcinŏri mens conscia, a mind conscious of crime. Cic.

2) Accusative with Preposition: Insuetus ad pugnam, unaccustomed to battle. Liv. Fertilis ad omnia, productive for all things. Plin. Avidus in

novas res, eager for new things. Liv.

- 3) ABLATIVE WITH OF WITHOUT PREPOSITION: Prūdens in jūre cīvīli, learned in civil law. Cic. Rǔdis in jūre cīvīli, uninstructed in civil law. Cic. His de rēbus conscius, aware of those things. Cic. Vǔcuus de dēfensūrībus, destitute of defenders. Caes. Cūris vǔcuus, free from carcs. Cic. Rǔfertus bŏnis, replete with blessings. Cic.
 - 6. The GENITIVE AND DATIVE occur with the same adjective: Sibi conscii culpae, conscious to themselves of fault. Cic.

III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

400. The Genitive with Verbs includes

I. Predicate Genitive.

II. Genitive of Place.

III. Genitive in Special Constructions.

I. Predicate Genitive.

RULE XVIII.—Predicate Genitive.

401. A Predicate Noun denoting a different person or thing from its Subject is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium ĕrant, All things belonged to the enemy.¹ Liv. Sĕnătus Hannībālis ĕrat, The senate was Hannībāl's, i. e., in his interest. Liv. Jūdĭcis est vērum sēqui, To follow the truth is the duty of a judge.² Cic. Parvi prĕtii est, It is of small value. Cic.

- 1. PREDICATE GENITIVE AND PREDICATE NOMINATIVE.—The Predicate Genitive is distinguished from the Predicate Nominative and Accusative by the fact that it always designates a different person or thing from its subject, while they always designate the same person or thing as their subjects. See 362.
- 2. PREDICATE GENITIVE AND PREDICATE ADJECTIVE.—The genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a predicate adjective (353. 1): hŏminis est = hūmānum est, it is the mark of a man, is human; stulti est = stultum est, it is foolish. The Gen. is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: săpientis est (for săpiens est), it is the part of a wise man, is wise.

402. Varieties of Predicate Genitive.—The principal are,

I. Subjective or Possessive Generally best rendered by—
of, property of, duty, business, mark, characteristic of:

Haec hostium ĕrant, These things were of (belonged to) the enemy. Liv. Est impĕrātōris sŭpĕrāre, It is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes.

II. PARTITIVE GENITIVE:

Fies nöbilium fontium, You will become one of the noble fountains. Hor.

III. Genitive of Characteristic—including value, price, size, weight, etc.:

Summae făcultătis est, He is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera magni fuit, The assistance was of great value. Nep.

1. The Genitive of *Price* or *Value* is generally an adjective belonging to prětii understood; but sometimes prětii is expressed:

¹ Lit. were of the enemy, or were the enemy's.

² Lit. is of a judge.

Parvi prětii est, It is of little value. Cic. See 396. IV.

2. Price and Value with verbs of buying, selling, and the like, are expressed

1) Regularly by the Ablative. See 416.

2) Sometimes by the Genitive of adjectives, like the Pred. Gen. of price: Vendo frümentum plüris, I sell grain at a higher price. Cic.

But the Gen. is thus used only in indefinite and general expressions of price and value. A definite price or value regularly requires the Ablative.

3) In familiar discourse sometimes by the genitives, assis, flocci, nihili, pili and a few others:

Non flocci penděre, not to care a straw (lock of wool) for. Plaut.

- 3. Bốni and Aequi, as Predicate Genitives, occur in such expressions as aequi bồni făcère and bồni consălère, to take in good part.
- 403. Verbs with Predicate Genitive.—The Predicate genitive occurs most frequently with sum and facio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming and regarding:

Haec hostium ĕrant, These things were the enemy's. Liv. Oram Rōmānae dītiōnis fēcit, He brought the coast under (of) Roman rule. Liv.

- 1. Transitive Verbs of this class admit in the active, an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the second example.
- With Verbs of Seeming and Regarding—videor, habeo, duco, puto, etc.—esse may generally be supplied:

Hominis videtur, It seems to be (esse) the mark of a man. Cic.

404. Other Constructions for the Genitive also occur.

1. The *Possessive* is regularly used for the Pred. Gen. of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tui) videre, It is your duty to see. Cic.

2. The Genitive with Officium, Mūnus, Něgötium, Proprium:

Sĕnātus officium est, It is the duty of the senate. Cic. Fuit proprium pŏpŭli, It was characteristic of the people. Cic.

The Predicate Genitive could in most instances be explained by supplying some such word, but it seems to be more in accordance with the idiom of the Latin to regard the genitive as complete in itself.

3. The Ablative of Characteristic. See 428.

II. Genitive of Place. See 421. II.

III. Genitive in Special Constructions.

405. The Genitive, either alone or with an Accusative, is used in a few constructions which deserve separate mention.

RULE XIX.—Genitive with Certain Verbs.

406. The Genitive is used

I. With miserecr and miseresco:

Mīsērēre lābōrum, Pity the labors. Virg. Mīsēreseĭte rēgis, Pity the king. Virg.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:

Měmňnit practěritôrum, He remembers the past. Cic. Oblitus sum mei, I have forgotten myself. Ter. Flågitiōrum rěcordāri, to recollect base deeds. Cic. Rěmňnisci virtūtis, to remember virtue. Cacs.

III. With refert and interest:

Illörum refert, It concerns them. Sall. Interest omnium, It is the interest of all. Cie.

- 1. Explanation.—The Genitive may be explained as dependent upon re in $r\bar{e}fert$, and upon re or eausa to be supplied with $int\bar{e}rest$. With the other verbs it accords with the Greek idiom, and with verbs of remembering and forgetting, it also conforms to the analogy of the Gen. with the adjectives $m\bar{e}mor$ and $imm\bar{e}mor$ (399. 2. 2)).
- 2. Construction according to sense.—The expression *Věnit mihi in mentem*, It occurs to my mind, equivalent to *rěminiscor*, is sometimes construed with the Gen.:

Věnit mihi Plătōnis in mentem, The recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or I recollect Plato. Cic. But the Nom. is also admissible: Non věnit in mentem pugna, Does not the battle come to mind? Liv.

407. Other Constructions with verbs of *Remembering* and *Forgetting* also occur:

1. The Accusative: Měminěram Paulum, I remembered Paulus. Cic.

This is the regular construction for the thing (not person), with $r\bar{e}cordor$, and, if it be a neuter pronoun or adjective, also with other verbs:

Triumphos récordāri, to recall triumphs. Cic. Ea réminiscère, Remember those things. Cic.

2. The Ablative with De: Récordare de cétéris, Bethink yourself of the others. Cic.

This is the regular construction for the *person* with *recordor*, and occurs also with $m \in m \cap i$, though that verb takes the Acc. of a contemporary.

408. The Construction with $R\bar{e}fert$ and $Int\bar{e}rest$ is as follows:

- 1. The Person or Thing interested is denoted
- 1) By the Genitive as under the rule.

2) By the Ablative Feminine of the Possessive:

Mea refert, It concerns me. Ter. Interest mea, It interests me. Cic.

This possessive regularly takes the place of the Gen. of personal pronouns, and may be explained as agreeing with re in refert, and with re or causa to be supplied with interest.

3) By the Dative, or Accusative with or without Ad; but rarely, and chiefly with refert, which moreover often omits the person:

Quid refert viventi, What does it concern one living t Hor. Ad me refert, It concerns me. Plaut.

2. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive or Clause, or by a Neuter Pronoun;

Interest omnium recte facere, To do right is the interest of all. Cic. Vestra hoc interest, This interests you. Cic.

3. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an Adverb, by a Neuter used adverbially, or by a Gen. of Value (402. 1 and 2):

Vestrā maxime intěrest, It especially interests you. Cic. Quid nostrā rēfert, What does it concern us? Cic. Magni intěrest meä, It greatly interests me. Cic.

4. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Ad hönörem nostrum interest, It is important for our honor. Cic.

409. Genitive with other Verbs.—Many other verbs sometimes take the Genitive:

1. Some Verbs of *Plenty* and *Want*, as *ĕgeo*, *indĭgeo*, like adjectives of the same meaning (399. 2. 2)):

Virtus exercitătionis indiget, Virtus requires exercise. Cic. Auxilii egere, to need aid. Caes.

2. Some Verbs of Emotion or Feeling like adjectives (399. 3. 4)):

Animi pendeo, I am uncertain in mind. Cic. Discrucior $\| n \|$ in I am troubled in mind. Plant.

3. A few Verbs denoting Mastery or Participation like adjectives (399. 2. 2)), pŏtior, ŭdĭpiscor, regno:

Siciliae põtitus est, He became master of Sicily. Nep. Rērum ädeptus est, Ho obtained the power. Tac. Regnāvit põpülörum, He was king of the people. Hor.

4. A Genitive of Separation or Cause occurs in the poets, with a few verbs—abstineo, decipio, desino, desisto; miror:

Abstinere frarum, to abstain from anger. Hor. Läbörum döcipitur, He is beguiled of his labors. Hor. Dösine querelärum, Cease from complaints. Hor. Dösistere pugnae, to desist from the battle. Virg.

5. Sătăgo and Sătăgito admit a genitive dependent upon sat (300.4)), and verbs of Promising admit the Gen. damni infecti:

Rerum sătăgere, to be occupied with (have enough of) business. Ter.

6. Genitive of Gerunds and Gerundives. See 563 and 563. 5.

RULE XX.-Accusative and Genitive.

- 410. A few transitive verbs take both the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing:
 - I. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing.
 - II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting.
 - III. Miseret, Poenitet, Pudet, Taedet, and Piget.
- I. Reminding, etc.—Te ămīcītiae commonefacit, He reminds you of friendship. Cic. Mīlītes necessitātis monet, He reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.
- II. Accusing, etc.—Viros scělěris arguis, You accuse men of crime. Cic. Lěvitātis eum convincěre, to convict him of levity. Cic. Absolvěre injūriae eum, to acquit him of injustice. Cic.
- III. MISERET, POENITET, ETC.—Eōrum nos mĭsĕret, We pity them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Consilii me poenitet, I repent of my purpose. Cic. Me stultitiae meae pǔdet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.
- 1. The Genitive of Thing designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of accusing, etc., the crime, charge, and with missiret, poenitet, etc., the object which produces the feeling. See examples.
- 2. Passive Construction.—The personal verbs included under this Rule retain the Genitive in the Passive:

 $\Lambda cc\bar{u}s\bar{a}tus$ est proditionis, He was accused of treason. Nep.

- 3. Verbs of Reminding, monco, admoneo, commoneo, commonefácio, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive,
- 1) The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives:

Illud me admones, You admonish me of that. Cic.

2) The Ablative with de, moneo generally so:

De proelio vos admonui, I have reminded you of the battle. Cic.

- 4. Verbs of Accessing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.,
 - 1) The Genitive with nomine or crimine:

Nomine conjurationis damnati sunt, They were condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cic.

2) The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely:

Id me accūsas, You accuse me of that. Plaut.

3) The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally de:

De pěcuniis repetundis damnātus est, He was convicted of extortion. Cic.

5. With Verbs of Condemning, the Punishment may be expressed

1) By the Genitive:

Căpitis condemnare, to condemn to death. Cic.

- (1) Voti damnāri, to be condemned to fulfill a vow = to obtain a wish.
- 2) By the Accusative with a preposition, generally ad:
- Ad bestias condemnare, to condemn to the wild beasts. Suet.
- 3) By the Ablative; and, in the poets, sometimes by the Dative:
- Căpite damnāre, to condemn to death. Cic.
- 6. With MISERET, POENITET, PUDET, TAEDET, and PIGET, an Infinitive or Clause is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

Me poenitet vixisse, I repent having lived. Cic.

- 1) Like M'isèret are sometimes used m'isèrescit, comm'isèrescit, m'isèrètur, commisèrètur. Like Taedet are used pertaedet, pertaesum est.
 - 2) Pudet sometimes takes the Gen. of the Person before whom one is ashamed:
- Me tui pùdet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Půdet hőminum, It is a shame in the sight of men. Liv.

3) Pertaesus admits the Accusative of the object:

Pertaesus ignāviam suam, disgusted with his own inaction. Suet.

- 7. The Accusative and Genitive occur with other Verbs .- Thus
- 1) With some Verbs of Freeing with the accessory notion of acquitting: Eum culpae libérare, to free him from blame, i. e., to acquit him of fault. Liv. So purgo, décipio, and the like.
- 2) With a few Verbs of Filling, like adjectives and verbs of plenty (399. 2. 2) and 409. 1), especially compleo and impleo:

Multitudinem religionis implevit, He inspired (filled) the multitude with religion. Liv. See 419. 2.

3) With a few transitive verbs of Emotion or Feeling (409. 2), rarely: Te angis animi, Fou make yourself anxious in mind. Plant.

IV. GENITIVE WITH ADVERBS.

411. The Genitive is used with a few Adverbs:

- 1. With Partitives. See 396. III. 2.
- 2. With Pridie and Postridie, perhaps dependent upon die contained in them, and with Ergo and Tenus, originally nouns:

Pridie ejus diei, on the day before that day. Caes. Postrīdie ejus diei, on the day after that day. Caes. Virtūtis ergo, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumborum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic. For tenus with the Abl., see 434.

SECTION VII.

ABLATIVE.

412. The Ablative in its primary meaning is closely related to the Genitive; but in its general use, it corresponds to the English objective with—from, by, in, with, and expresses various adverbial relations. It is accordingly used

with Verbs and Adjectives, while the genitive, as the case of adjective relations, is most common with Nouns. See 393.

- 413. The Ablative is used as
 - I. Ablative of Cause, Manner, Means-including
 - 1. Ablative of Price.
 - 2. Ablative after Comparatives.
 - 3. Ablative of Difference.
 - 4. Ablative in Special Constructions.
 - II. Ablative of Place.
 - III. Ablative of Time.
 - IV. Ablative of Characteristic.
 - V. Ablative of Specification.
 - VI. Ablative Absolute.
- VII. Ablative with Prepositions.
 - I. ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, MANNER, MEANS.

RULE XXI.-Cause, Manner, Means.

414. Cause, Manner, and Means are denoted by the Ablative:

Ars ūtīlītāte laudātur, An art is praised because of its usefulness. Cic. Glōria dūcītur, He is led by glory. Cic. Duōbus mŏdis fit, It is done in two ways. Cic. Sol omnia lūce collustrat, The sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. Aeger ĕrat vulnĕrībus, He was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep. Laetus sorte tua, pleased with your lot. Hor.

- 1. Application of Rule.—This ablative is of very frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and adjectives.
- 2. The Ablative of Cause designates that by which, by reason of which, because of which, in accordance with which anything is or is done.
- 1) This includes such ablatives as meo jūdicio, in accordance with my opinion; mea sententia, jussu, impulsu, mŏnitu, etc.; also the Abl. with döleo, gaudeo, glörior, lăbōro, etc.

The Abl. with afficio, and with sto in the sense of depend upon, abide by, is best explained as Means. Afficio and the Abl. are together often equivalent to another verb: hōnōre afficère = hōnōrāre, to honor; admīrātiōne afficère = admirāri, to admire.

2) With Passive and Intransitive verbs, Cause is regularly expressed by the Abl., though a preposition with the Acc. or Abl. sometimes occurs:

Amīcītia propter se expětitur, Friendship is sought for itself. Cic.

3) With Transitive verbs the Abl. without a Prep. is rare; but causa, grătia and ablatives in u of nouns used only in that case (134), juesu, rĕgātu, mandātu, etc., are thus used; sometimes also other words.

In other cases, Cause in the sense of—on account of, because of, is generally expressed—(1) by a Preposition with its case: ob, propter, de, ex, prae, etc.; or (2) by a Perfect Participle with an Ablative:

In oppidum propter timorem sese recipiunt, They betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Caes. Regni cupiditate inductus conjurationem fecit, Influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Caes.

Cupiditate in the 2d example really expresses the cause of the action $f \tilde{e} c i t$, but by the use of inductus, it becomes the $\Delta b l$. of Cause with that participle.

3. Ablative of Manner.—This ablative is regularly accompanied by some modifier, or by the Prep. cum; but a few ablatives, chiefly those signifying manner—more, ordine, ratione, etc.—occur without such accompaniment:

Vi summa, with the greatest violence. Nep. More Persurum, in the manner of the Persians. Nep. Cum silentio audire, to hear in silence. Liv.

Per with the Acc. sometimes denotes Manner: per vim, violently.

- 4. Ablative of Means.—This includes the *Instrument* and all other *Means* employed. See also 434. 2; 414, 2, 1).
- 5. Ablative of Agent.—This designates the Person by whom anything is done as a voluntary agent, and takes the Prep. A or Ab:

Occīsus est a Thēbānis, He was slain by the Thebans. Nep.

 The Abl. without a Prep. or the Accus. with per is sometimes used, especially when the Person is regarded as the Means, rather than as the Agent.

Cornua Numidis firmat, He strengthens the wings with Numidians. Liv. Per Fabricium, by means of (through the agency of) Fabricius, Cic.

2) Dative of Agent. See 388.

6. Personification.—When anything is personified as agent, the ablative with A or Ab may be used as in the names of persons:

Vinci a völuptäte, to be conquered by pleasure. Cic. A fortūna dätam occāsionem, an opportunity furnished by fortune. Nep.

7. ABLATIVE OF ACCOMPANIMENT.—This generally takes cum: Vivit cum Balbo, He lives with Balbus. Cic. But

In describing military movements, the preposition is often omitted, especially when the Abl. is qualified by an adjective:

Ingenti exercitu profectus est, He set out with a large army. Liv.

415. KINDRED USES OF THE ABLATIVE.—Kindred to the Ablative of Cause, etc., are

I. The Ablative of Price—that by which the trade is

effected.

II. The Ablative with Comparatives—that by which the comparison is effected.

HI. The Ablative of Difference—that by which one object differs from another.

IV. The Ablative in Special Constructions.

RULE XXII.-Ablative of Price.

416. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vendidit auro patriam, He sold his country for gold. Virg. Conduxit magno dŏmum, He hired a house at a high price. Cic. Multo sanguĭne Poenis victōria stĕtit, The victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quinquāginta tālentis aestimāri, to be valued at fifty talents. Nep. Vīle est vīginti mĭnis, It is cheap at twenty minae. Plaut.

- 1. The Ablative of Price is used
- 1) With verbs of buying, selling, hiring, letting, *emo, vendo, conduco, löco, vēneo, etc.
- 2) With verbs of costing, of being cheap or dear, sto, consto, liceo, sum, etc.
 - 3) With verbs of valuing, aestimo, etc.
 - 4) With adjectives of value, cārus, vēnālis, etc.

Exchanging.—With verbs of exchanging—mūto, commūto, etc.—the
thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling:

Pāce bellum mūtāvit, He exchanged war for peace. Sall. But sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Abl. with cum: Exsilium patria mūtāvit, He exchanged country for exile. Curt.

- 3. Adverds of Price are sometimes used: běne ěměre, to purchase well, i. e., at a low price; cāre aestīmāre, to value at a high price.
 - 4. GENITIVE OF PRICE. See 402. III.

RULE XXIII.—Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative:

Nihil est ămābīlius virtūte, Nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Quid est mělius bŏnĭtāte, What is better than goodness? Cic.

1. Comparatives with Quam are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Hibernia minor quam Britannia existimātur, Hibernia is considered smaller than Britannia. Caes. Agris quam urbi terribilior, more terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.

2. Ablative, when admissible.—The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abbreviation. This abbreviation is admissible only in place of quam with the Nominative or Accusative, but is not necessary even here except for quam with a Relative:

ScImus solem majorem esse terrā, We know that the sun is larger than the earth. Cic. Amīcitia, qua nihil mělius hǎbēmus; friendship, than which we have nothing better. Cic. See also examples under the Rule.

1) In the first example the Ablative (terra) is admissible but not necessary, quam terram might have been used; but in the second example the Ablative (quā) is necessary, the conjunction quam would be inadmissible.

 In the examples under the rule the ablatives rirtute and bonitate are both equivalent to quam with the Nom. quam virtus and quam bonitas, which might

have been used.

- 3) Instead of the Abl., a Preposition with its case, ante, prae, praeter, or supra is sometimes used: Ante alios immanior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Virg.
- 3. Construction with Plus, Minus, etc.—Plus, minus, amplius, or longius, with or without quam, is often introduced in expressions of number and quantity, without influence upon the construction; sometimes also major, minor, etc.:

Tecum plus annum vixit, He lived with you more than a year. Cic. Minus duo millia, less than two thousand. Liv.

So in expressions of age: nātus plus trīginta annos, haring been born more than thirty years. The same meaning is also expressed by—major trīginta annos nātus, major trīginta annis, major quam trīginta annorum, or major trīginta annorum.

- 4. Atque or Ac for Quam occurs chiefly in poetry and late prose: Arctius atque hederā, more closely than with ivy. Hor.
- 5. Alius with the Ablative sometimes occurs. It then involves a comparison, other than:

Quaerit ălia his, He seeks other things than these. Plaut.

6. Peculiarities.— Quam pro denotes disproportion, and many ablatives —õpiniõne, spe, aequo, justo, sõlito, etc.—are often best rendered by clauses:

Minor caedes quam pro victoria, less slaughter than was proportionate to the victory. Liv. Serius spe venit, He came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Plus aequo, more than is fair. Cic.

RULE XXIV .- Ablative of Difference.

418. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Uno die longiörem mensem făciunt, They make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Biduo me antěcessit, He preceded me by two days. Cic. Sunt magnitudine paulo infra ělěphantos, They are in size a little below the elephant. Caes.

1. The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but adverbs often supply its place: Multum robustior, much more robust.

2. The Ablative of Difference includes the Abl. of Distance (378.2), and the Abl. with ante, post, and abhine in expressions of time (427).

RULE XXV.—Ablative in Special Constructions.

419. The Ablative is used

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrīmis rēbus frumur et ūtīmur, We enjoy and use very many things. Cic. Magna est praeda pŏtītus, He obtained great booty. Nep. Vescimur bestiis, We live upon animals. Cic.

II. With fido, confido, nitor, and innitor:

Nēmo potest fortūnae stābilītāte confīdēre, No one can trust (confide in) the stability of fortune. Cic. Sālus vērītāte nītītur, Safety rests upon truth. Cic.

III. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY and WANT:

Non ěgeo mědicīna, I do not need a remedy. Cic. Văcāre culpa, to be free from fault. Cic. Villa ăbundat lacte, cāsco, melle; The villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honcy. Cic. Urbs nūda praesĭdio, a city destitute of defence. Cic. Virtūte praedītus, endowed with virtue. Cic.

IV. With dignus, indignus, contentus, and frētus:

Digni sunt ămīeštia, They are worthy of friendship. Cic. Nātūra parvo contenta, nature content with little. Cic. Frētus ămīcis, relying upon his friends. Liv.

V. With opus and ūsus:

Auctoritate tua nobis opus est, We need (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cic. Usus est tua mihi opera, I need your aid. Plaut.

- 1. Explanation.—This Ablative may in most instances be readily explained as the Ablative of *Cause* or *Means*: thus ātor, I use, serve myself by means of; fruor, I enjoy, delight myself with; vescor, I feed upon, feed myself with; fido, confido, I confide in, am confident because of, etc.
- 2. Accusative and Ablative.—Dignor and transitive verbs of Plenty and Want take the Accusative with the Ablative:

Me dignor hŏnōre, I deem myself worthy of honor. Virg. Armis nāves ŏnĕrat, He loads the ships with arms. Sall. Oculis se prīvat, He deprives himself of his eyes. Cic. See 371. 2.

- 1) Transitive verbs of *Plenty* and *Want* signify to fill, furnish with, deprive of, etc.: afficio, cămălo, compleo, impleo, imbuo, instruo, ŏnēro, orno, etc.—orbo, prīvo, spōlio, etc. Dignor in the best prose admits only the Abl.
 - 2) For the Accusative and Genitive with some of these verbs, see 410. 7. 2).
- 3. Dative AND Ablative.—Opus est and usus est admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing. See examples.

1) The Ablative is sometimes a Perfect Participle, or, with opus est, a Noun and Participle:

Consulto opus est, There is need of deliberation. Sall. Opus fuit Hirtio convento, There was need of meeting Hirtius. Cic.

2) With opus est, rarely with usus est, the thing needed may be denoted-

(1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative:

Dux nobis opus est, We need a leader, or a leader is necessary (a necessity) for us. Cic. Temporis opus est, There is need of time. Liv. Opus est cibum, There is need of food. Plant.

(2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est te vălūre, It is necessary that you be well. Cic. Opus est ut lăvem, It is necessary for me to bathe (that I bathe). Plant. Dictu est ŏpus, It is necessary to be told. Ter.

4. OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS also occur. Thus

1) Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and rescor, originally transitive, are occasionally so used in classic authors. Their participle in dus is passive in sense. Utor admits two ablatives of the same person or thing:

Me ūtētur patre, He will find (use) me a father. Ter.

2) Fido, confido, and innitor admit the Dative, rarely the Abl. with in.

Virtūti confīdere, to confide in virtue. Cic. Sec 385. 1.

 Dignus and indignus admit the Gen., fritus the Dat., nitor and innitor the Acc. or Abl. with Prep., and some verbs of Want the Abl. with Prep.

Dignus sălūtis, worthy of safety. Plant. Rei frētus, relying upon the thing. Liv. Văcāre ăb ŏpĕre, to be free from work. Caes.

4) Genitive.—For the genitive with potion, see 409. 3. For the genitive with verbs and adjectives of Plenty and Want, see 409. 1, 410. 7, and 399. 2. 2).

II. ABLATIVE OF PLACE.

420. This Ablative designates

I. The Place in which anything is or is done:

II. The PLACE FROM WHICH anything proceeds;—including Source and Separation.

RULE XXVI.—Ablative of Place.

- 421. I. The PLACE IN WHICH and the PLACE FROM WHICH are generally denoted by the Ablative with a Preposition. But
- II. NAMES OF TOWNS omit the Preposition, and in the Singular of the First and Second declensions designate the PLACE IN WHICH by the Genitive:

- I. Hannibal in Italia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. In nostris castris, in our camp. Caes. In Appia via, on the Appian way. Cic. Ab urbe proficiscitur, He departs from the city. Caes. Ex Africa, from Africa, Liv.
- II. Athènis fuit, He was at Athens. Cic. Băbţlone mortuus est, He died at Babylon. Cic. Fūgit Cŏrintho, He fled from Corinth. Cic. Rōmae fuit, He was at Rome. Cic.
- 422. Names of Places not Towns sometimes omit the preposition:
- 1. The Ablative of Place in which, sometimes omits the preposition:
- 1) Generally the Ablatives—lõco, lõcis, parte, partībus, dextra, laeva, sšnistra, terra, mărī, and other Ablatives when qualified by tõtus:

Aliquid loco ponere, to put anything in its place. Cic. Terra marique,

on land and sea. Liv. Tota Graecia, in all Greece. Nep.

2) Sometimes other Ablatives, especially when qualified by adjectives: Hoe libro, in this book. Cic.

In poetry the preposition is often omitted even when the ablative has no modifier: Silvis agrisque, in the forests and fields. Ov.

2. The Ablative of place from which sometimes omits the preposition, especially in poetry:

Cădere nubibus, to fall from the clouds. Virg. Lābi equo, to fall from a horse. Hor.

- 423. Names of Towns differ in their construction from other names of places,
- I. Generally in simply omitting the preposition. But II. In the Singular of the First and Second declensions they designate the Place in which by the Genitive. See examples under the Rule.
- 1. Prefosition Retained.—The preposition is sometimes retained, especially for emphasis or contrast:
- Ab Ardea Römam vēnērunt, They came from Ardea to Rome. Liv. So also when the vicinity rather than the town itself is meant: Discessit a Brundisio, He departed from Brundisium, i. e., from the port. Caes. Apud Mantineam, near Mantinea. Cic. Ad Trěbiam, at or near the Trebia. Liv.
- 2. The Genitive, it must be observed, never denotes the place from which.

The Genitive-Forms denoting the *place in which*, are genitives only in form. They probably belonged originally to a case called the *Locative*, afterward blended with the Ablative, except in the Sing. of Dec. I. and II., where it is united with the Gen. Accordingly these genitives are in force old Ablatives.

3. OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS for the Genitive also occur:

1) Ablative by Attraction:

In monte Albano Lavinioque, on the Alban mount and at Lavinium. Liv.

2) Ablative without Attraction, generally with a preposition:

In ipsa Alexandria, in Alexandria itself. Cic. Longa Alba, at Alba Longa. Virg.

This is the regular construction when the noun takes an adjective or adjective pronoun, but the Gen. domi (424. 2) admits a possessive or allenus:

Domi suae, at his home. Cic.

3) With an Appellative—urbs, oppidum—the name of the town is in the Gen. or Abl., but the appellative itself is in the Abl., generally with a Prep.:

In oppido Antiochiae, in the city of Antioch. Cic. In oppido Citio, in the town Citium: Nep. Albae, in urbe opportuna, at Alba, a convenient city. Cic.

424. Like Names of Towns are used

1. Many names of Islands:

Vixit Cypri, He lived in Cyprus. Nep. Delo prŏfĭciscĭtur, He proceeds from Delos. Cic.

2. Domus, rus and the genitives humi, militiae and belli:

Rūri ăgĕre vītam, to spend life in the country. Liv. Dŏmi mīlītiaeque, at home and in the field. Čic. Dŏmo prōfūgit, He fled from home. Cic.

- 3. The Genitive of other nouns also occurs:
- 1) By Attraction after names of towns:

Romae Numidiaeque, at Rome and in Numidia. Sall.

2) Without Attraction in a few proper names and rarely also the genitives ărenae, foci, terrae, viciniae:

Domum Chersonesi habuit, He had a house in the Chersonesus. Nep. Truncum reliquit arenae, He left the body in the sand. Virg.

RULE XXVII.—Ablative of Source and Separation.

425. Source and Separation are denoted by the Ablative, generally with a preposition:

Source.—Hoc audivi de părente meo, I heard this from my father. Cic. Oriundi ab Săbīnis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Stătua ex acre facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Jöve nātus, son of Jupiter. Cic.

Separation.—Caedem a võbis dēpello, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic. Hunc a tuis āris arcēbis, You will keep this one from your altars. Cic. Expulsus est patria, He was banished from his country. Cic.

1. The Ablative of Source designates that from which anything is derived, including parentage, material, etc.

2. The Ablative of Separation designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is used:

- 1) With Intransitive verbs signifying, to abstain from, be distant from, etc.
- 2) In connection with the Accusative after transitive verbs signifying, to hold from, separate from, free from, and the like: arceo, abstineo, deterreo, ejicio, excludo, exsolvo, lībero, pello, prohibeo, removeo, solvo, etc.:

3) A few verbs of separation admit the Dative: ŭližno, füror, etc. See 385. 4.

- 3. Preposition Omitted.—This generally occurs
- 1) With Perfect Participles denoting parentage or birth—gentus, natus, ortus, etc.:

Jove natus, son of Jupiter. Cic.

2) With Verbs of Freeing, except libero, which is used both with and

without a preposition:

Somno solvi, to be released from sleep. Cic. But in the sense of acquitting these verbs admit the genitive (410.7): Alliquem culpae liberare, to free one from blame, i. e., acquit him. Liv.

3) With Moreo before the ablatives—loco, senātu and trību:

Signum movere loco, to move the standard from the place. Cic.

4) The preposition is sometimes omitted with other words, especially in poetry.

III. ABLATIVE OF TIME.

RULE XXVIII.-Time.

426. The Time of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octōgēsĭmo anno est mortuus, He died in his eightieth year. Cic. Vēre eonvēnēre, They assembled in the spring. Liv. Nātāli die suo, on his birthday. Nep. Hiĕme et aestāte, in winter and summer. Cic.

- 1. Designations of Time.—Any word, so used as to involve the time of an action or event, may be put in the ablative: *lello*, in the time of war; pugna, in the time of battle; *lūdis*, at the time of the games; mēmŏria, in memory, i. e., in the time of one's recollection.
 - 2. The Ablative with In is used to denote
 - 1) The circumstances of the time, rather than time itself:
 - In tāli tempore, under such circumstances. Liv.
 - 2) The time in or within which anything is done:
 - In diebus proximis decem, in the next ten days. Sall.
- (1) This is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in die, twice in the day; in puèritia, in boyhood.
- (2) In a kindred sense occur also the Abl with de and the Accus, with inter or intra: De media nocte, in the middle of the night. Caes. Inter annos quattuordecim, in (within) fourteen years. Caes.
- (3) The Ablative with or without in sometimes denotes the time within which or after which; paucis diebus, within (or after) a few days.

427. Accusative or Ablative.—The time since an action or event is denoted by *Abhinc* or *Ante* with the Accusative or Ablative, and the time between two events, by *Ante* or *Post* with the Accusative or Ablative:

Abhine annos trècentos fuit, He lived (was) three hundred years since. Cic. Abhine annis quattuor, four years since. Cic. Homerus annis multis fuit ante Romulum, Homer lived many years before Romulus. Cic. Paucis ante diebus, a few days before. Cic. Post dies paucos venit, He came after a few days. Liv.

1. Explanation.—(1) The Accusative with abhine is explained as Duration of Time (378), with ante and post as dependent upon those prepositions.
(2) The Ablative in both cases is explained as the Ablative of Difference (418).

With the Abl. ante and post are used adverbially unless an Accus, is expressed after them. Paucis his (illis) diebus, means in these (those) few days.

2. Numerals with Ante and Post.—These may be either cardinal or ordinal. Thus: five years after = quinque annis post, or quinto anno post; or post quinque annos, or post quintum annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quinque post annis, etc.

3. QUAM WITH ANTE AND POST .- Quam may follow ante and post, may

be united with them, or may even be used for postquam:

Quartum post annum quam rédiérat, four years after he had returned. Nep. Nono anno postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sexto anno quam érat expulsus, six years after he had been banished. Nep.

4. The Ablative of the Relative or Quem may be used for postquam:

Quătriduo, quo occisus est, four days after he was killed. Cic.

IV. ABLATIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC.

RULE XXIX.—Characteristic.

428. The Ablative with an adjective may be used to characterize a person or thing:

Summa virtūte ădölescens, a youth of the highest virtue. Cacs. Cătilīna ingěnio mălo fuit, Catiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall.

- 1. ABLATIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC is used
- 1) With Substantives as in the first example.
- 2) In the Predicate with sum, and the other verbs which admit a Predicate Genitive (403) as in the second example.
- 2. The Ablative with a Genitive instead of the ablative with an adjective is sometimes used:
 - Uri sunt specie tauri, The urus is of the appearance of a bull. Caes.
 - 3. Genitive of Characteristic.—See 296, IV.
- 4. Genitive AND ABLATIVE DISTINGUISHED.—The Genitive generally expresses permanent and essential qualities; the Ablative is not limited to any particular kind of qualities.

V. ABLATIVE OF SPECIFICATION.

RULE XXX.—Specification.

429. The Ablative may be used with a word to define its application:

Agēsīlāus nomine, non potestāte fuit rex, Agesilaus was king in name, not in power. Nep. Claudus altēro pede, lame in one foot. Nep. Morībus similes, similar in character. Cic.

- 1. Force of Ablative.—This shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name: similar (in what respect?) in character.
 - 2. Accusative of Specification. See 380.

VI. ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

430. A noun and a participle, a noun and an adjective, or two nouns may be grammatically independent of (absolved from) the rest of the sentence, and yet may express various adverbial modifications of the predicate. When so used they are said to be in the case Absolute.

RULE XXXI.—Ablative Absolute.

431. The Ablative is used as the Case Absolute:

Servio regnante viguērunt, They flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cie. Rēgibus exactis, consules creati sunt, After the banishment of the kings, consuls were appointed. Liv. Sērēno coelo, when the sky is clear. Sen. Căunio consule, in the consulship of Caninius. Cie.

- 1. Use.—The Ablative Absolute is much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, and expresses a great variety of relations,—time, cause, reason, means, condition, concession, etc.
- 2. How Rendered.—This ablative is generally best rendered (1) by a Clause with—when, while, for, since, if, though, etc., (2) by a Noun with a Preposition,—in, during, after, by, from, through, etc., or (3) by an Active Participle with its Object:

Servio regnante, while Servius reigned, or in the reign of Servius. Cic. Religione neglecta, because religion was neglected. Liv. Perditis rebus omnibus, tamen, etc., Though all things are lost, still, etc. Cic. Equitatu praemisso, subsequebatur, Having sent forward his cavalry, hefollowed. Caes.

3. A Connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative: Nīsi mūnītis castris, unless the camp should be fortified. Caes. 4. An Infinitive or Clause may be in the Abl. Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Audito Dārium movisse, pergit, Having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had, etc., having been heard), he advanced. Curt. Multi, incerto quid vītārent, interierunt, Many, uncertain what they should avoid (what they, etc., being uncertain), perished. Liv.

5. A PARTICIPLE or ADJECTIVE may stand alone in the Abl. Absolute:

Multum certato, pervicit, He conquered after a hard struggle (it having been much contested). Tac.

6. Quisque in the Nominative may accompany the Abl Absolute: Multis sibi quisque pétentibus, while many sought, each for himself. Sall.

VII. ABLATIVE WITH PREPOSITIONS. See 432 and 434.

SECTION VIII.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXXII.—Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with Prepositions:

Ad ămīcum scripsi, I have written to a friend. Cie. In chriam, into the senate house. Liv. In Itălia, in Italy. Nep. Pro castris, before the camp.

433. The Accusative is used with

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circa, circum, circiter, cis, citra, contra, erga, extra, infra, inter, intra, juxta, ob, penes, per, pone, post, practer, prope, propter, secundum, supra, trans, ultra, versus:

Ad urbem, to the city. Cic. Adversus does, toward the gods. Cic. Ante lücem, before light. Cic. Apud concilium, in the presence of the council. Cic. Circa forum, around the forum. Cic. Citra flümen, on this side of the river. Cic. Contra näturam, contrary to nature. Cic. Intra mūros, within the walls. Cic. Post castra, behind the camp. Caes. Secundum näturam, according to nature. Cic. Trans Alpes, across the Alps. Cic.

Like Prope, the derivatives propior and proximus take the Accus, dependent perhaps upon ad understood. Exadversus (um) also occurs with the Accus.:

Propior montem, nearer to the mountain. Sall. Proximus mire, nearest to the sea. Caes. See also 437, and for compounds, 371, 4, and 874, 6.

 Versus (nm) and usque as adverbs often accompany prepositions, especially ad and in: Ad Alpes versus, towards the Alps.

434. The Ablative is used with

A or ab (abs), absque, cōram, cum, de, e or ex, prae, pro, sine, těnus:

Ab urbe, from the city. Caes. Coram conventu, in the presence of the assembly. Nep. Com Antiocho, with Antiochus. Cic. De foro, from the forum. Cic. La Asia, from Asia. Nep. Sine corde, without a heart. Cic.

1. Many verbs compounded with ab, de, ex, or super, admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition:

Abire magistratu, to retire from office. Tac. Pugna excedunt, They retire from the battle. Caes.

Sometimes the Prep. is repeated, or one of kindred meaning is used:

De vita décèdère, to départ from life. Cic. Décèdère ex Asia, to depart from Asia. Cic.

2. The Ablative with or without De is sometimes used with Facio, Fio, or Sum, as follows:

Quid hoc hömine făcias. What are you to do with this man? Cic. Quid te (or de te) fătūrum est, What will become of you? Cic.

The Dative occurs in nearly the same sense:

Quid huic homini făcias, What are you to do with (or to) this man? Cic.

3. A, ab, abs, e, ex.—A and e are used only before consonants, ab and ex either before vowels or consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before te.

4. Těnus follows its case:

Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov.

 Cum with the Abl. of a Pers. Pronoun is appended to it: mēcum, tēcum, etc., generally also with a relative: quēcum, quibuscum.

435. The Accusative or Ablative is used with

In, sub, subter, super:

In Asiam profugit, He fled into Asia. Cic. Hannibal in Itălia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. Sub montem, toward the mountain. Caes. Sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Liv. Subter togam, under the toga. Liv. Subter testudine, under a tortoise or shed. Virg. Super Numidian, beyond Numidia. Sall. Hac super re scribam, I will write on this subject. Cic.

1. In and Sub take the Accusative in answer to the question whither? the Ablative in answer to where? In Asiam (whither?), into Asia; In Italia (where?), in Italy.

2. Subter and Super generally take the Accusative, but super with the force of—concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative, see examples.

- 436. Prepositions as Adverbs.—The prepositions were originally adverbs, and many of them are sometimes so used in classical authors.
- 437. Adverses as Prepositions.—Conversely several adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions with an oblique case, though in most instances a preposition could readily be supplied. Such are
- 1. With Accusative: propius, provime, pridie, postridie, usque, desuper:
 Propius periculum (ad), nearer to danger. Liv. Pridie Idus (ante), the day
 before the Ides. Cie. Usque pedes (ad), even to the feet. Curt.

2. With Ablative: palam, procul, simul (poetic):

Pålam pöpülo, in the presence of the people. Liv. Procul castris, at a distance from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with these. Hor.

3. With Accusative or Ablative: clam, insuper:

Clam patrem, without the father's knowledge. Plant. Clam võbis, without your knowledge. Caes,

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE XXXIII.—Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An Adjective agrees with its Noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE:

Fortuna caeca est, Fortune is blind. Cic. Verae ămicătiae, true friend-ships. Cic. Măgister optimus, the best teacher. Cic.

- 1. This Rule includes Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles.
- 2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives.—An adjective is called attributive, unless it unites with the verb (generally sum), to form the predicate; it is then called a predicate-adjective: as caeca est, above.
- 3. Agreement with Clause, etc.—An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:

Quis clārior, Who is more illustrious? Cic. Certum est lībéros ămāri, It is certain that children are loved. Quint. See 25. III.

An adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes plural, as in Greek.

4. Neuter with Masculine.—Sometimes the Predicate Adjective is neuter, when the subject is Masc. or Fem.:

Mors est extremum, Death is the last (thing). Cic.

5. Neuter with Genitive.—A neuter adjective with a genitive is often used instead of an adjective with its noun:

Multum ŏpĕrae (for multa opĕra), much service (much of service). Cic. Id tempŏris, that time. Cic. Vana rērum (for rānae res), rain things. Hor.

6. Construction according to Sense.—Sometimes the adjective or participle conforms to the *real meaning* of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certure puruti, a part (some), prepared to contend. Virg. Nobis (for me, 446, 2), praesente, we (I) being present. Plant. Demosthènes cum ceteris erant expulsi, Demosthenes with the others had been banished. Nep.

- 7. AGREEMENT WITH PREDICATE NOUN OR APPOSITIVE.—See 462.
- 8. Agreement with one Noun for Another.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:

Majūra (for majūrum) ĭnītia rērum, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus justi (justus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

439. With two or more Nouns .- An adjective or participle, belonging to two or more nouns, may agree with them all conjointly, or may agree with one and be understood with the others:

Castor et Pollux visi sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Těměritas ignorātioque vitiosa est, Rashness and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The Attributive Adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun: Agri omnes et măria, all lands and seas. Cic.

2. DIFFERENT GENDERS .- When the nouns are of different genders,

they may denote

1) Persons: then the adjective or participle agreeing with them conjointly is masculine: Păter et mater mortui sunt, Father and mother are dead. Ter.

2) Persons and Things: then the adjective generally takes the gender of the person: Rex regiaque classis profecti sunt, The king and the royal

fleet set out. Liv.

3) Things: then the adjective is generally neuter: Honores, victoriae fortuita sunt, Honors and victories are accidental (things). Cic.

3. NEUTER WITH MASCULINE OR FEMININE. - With masculine or feminine

nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective is often neuter: Lăbor et dolor sunt finitima, Labor and pain are kindred (things). Cic. Nox atque praeda hostes remorata sunt, Night and plunder detained the

enemy. Sall. 4. Two or more Adjectives .- Two or more adjectives in the singular

may belong to a plural noun:

Prīma et vīcēsīma légiones, the first and the twentieth legions. Tac. So in proper names: Cnaeus et Publius Scipiones, Cnaeus and Publius Scipio. Cic.

440. Use of Adjectives.—The Adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the Adjective in English.

1. An adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun and an adjective: aes alienum grande, a great debt. Here grande qualifies not aes alone, but ues aliènum. In such cases no connective is used between the adjectives.

But the Latin uses the conjunction after multi even where the English omits it: multae et magnae tempestates, many great emergencies.

441. Adjectives are often used substantively: docti, the learned; multi, many persons; multa, many things.

1. In the Plural, Masculine Adjectives often designate persons, and Neuter Adjectives things: fortes, the brave; divites, the rich; pauperes, the poor; multi, many: pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; utilia, useful things; mea, nostra, my, our things; omnia, all things; haec, illa, these, those things.

2. In the Singular, Adjectives are occasionally used substantively, especially in the Neuter with an abstract sense: doctus, a learned man; eërum, a true thing, the truth; nihil sinceri, nothing of sincerity, nothing sincere.

- 3. Nown Understood.—Many adjectives become substantives, by the omission of their nouns: patria (terra), native country; dextra (manus), right hand; fêra (bestia), wild beast; hiberna (castra), winter-quarters.
- 4. With Res.—Adjectives with res are used with great freedom: res adversae, adversity; res secundae, prosperity; res publica, republic.
- 5. From Proper Names.—Adjectives from proper names are often equivalent to the English objective with of: pugna Mărăthōnia, the battle of Marathon; Diāna Ephesia, Diana of Ephesus; Hercules Xenophontius, the Hercules of Xenophon.
- 6. Designating a Part.—A few adjectives sometimes designate a particular part of an object: prīmus, mědius, ultīmus, extrēmus, postrēmus, intimus, summus, infimus, imus, suprēmus, reliquus, cētéra, etc.: prīma nox, the first part of the night; summus mons, the highest part of the mountain.

In Livy and late writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a genitive sometimes occurs:

Ad ultimum inopiae, for ad ultimam inopiam, to extreme destitution. Liv.

442. Equivalent to a Clause.—Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Nēmo saltat sobrius, No one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortensium vīvum ămāvi, I loved Hortensius, while he was alive. Cic. Hŏmo nunquam sobrius, a man, who is never sober. Cic.

1. Prior, primus, ultimus, postrēmus, are often best rendered by a relative clause:

Prīmus morem solvit, He was the first who broke the custom. Liv.

With the adverb primum, the thought would be, he first broke the custom, and then did something else.

443. Instead of Adverbs.—Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:

Socrătes věnēnum laetus hausit, Socrates cheerfully drank the poison. Sen. Sěnātus frēquens convēnit, The senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roscius ĕrat Rōmae frĕquens, Koscius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

Adjectives thus used are: (1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: lactus, libens, invitus, tristis, sciens, insciens, prūdens, imprūdens, etc. (2) Nullus, sōlus, tōtus, ūnus; prior, prīmus, prōpior, proximus, etc. (3) In the Poets several adjectives of time and place:

Domesticus otior, I idle about home. Hor. Vespertinus pete tectum, At evening seek your abode. Hor. See Examples above; also 335. 4.

444. Comparison.—A comparison between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:

Prior horum, the former of these (two). Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes.

1. WITH THE FORCE OF TOO OR VERY.—The comparative sometimes has the force of too, unusually, somewhat, and the superlative, the force of very: doctior, too learned, or somewhat learned; doctissimus, very learned.

2. Comparative after Quan.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, both adjectives are put in the comparative; but when it is said to possess one quality rather than another, both are in the positive, the former with magis or positius:

Clārior quam grātior, more illustrious than pleasing. Liv. Disertus māgis quam săpiens, fluent rather than wise. Cic.

In the first case the positive is sometimes used in one or both members; and in the second case $m\ddot{u}gis$ is sometimes omitted, and occasionally the adjective before quam is in the comparative.

3. Strengthening Words.—Comparatives and Superlatives are often strengthened by a Prep. with its case, ante, prace, practer, supra (417. 2. 3), unus, unus omnium, alone, alone of all, far, by far; Comparatives also by etiam, even, still; multo, much, and Superlatives by longe, multo, by far, much, quam, quantus, as possible:

Multo maxima pars, by far the largest part. Cic. Res üna omnium difficillima, a thing by far the most difficult of all. Cic. Quam maximae cūpiae, forces as large as possible. Sall. Quanta maxima vastitas, the greatest possible decastation. Liv.

4. Comparison in Adverts has the same force as in adjectives:

Quam sacpissime, as often as possible. Cic. Fortius quam felicius, with more bravery than success. Liv.

CHAPTER IV.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

RULE XXXIV.-Agreement of Pronouns.

445. Λ Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person:

Animal quod sanguinem häbet, an animal which has blood. Cic. Ego, qui te confirmo, I who encourage you. Cic. Vis est in virtūtībus; cas excita, There is strength in virtues, arouse them. Cic.

1. Application of Rule.—This rule applies to all Pronouns when used as nouns. Pronouns used as adjectives conform to the rule for adjectives. See 438.

The Antecedent is the word or words to which the pronoun refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the antecedent of quod, and rirtuitious the antecedent of eas.

2. AGREEMENT WITH PERSONAL PRONOUN.—When the antecedent is a Demonstrative in agreement with a Personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tu es is qui me ornasti, You are the one who commended me. Cic.

3. With two Antecedents.—When a relative or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest:

Puĕri mŭliĕresque, qui, boys and women, who. Caes. Peccātum ac culpa, quae, error and fault, which. Cic.

- 1) With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectives (439, 2 and 3); hence pulvi multivesque qui, above,
- 2) With antecedents of different persons, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third, conforming to the rule for verbs. See 463.1.
- 4. WITH PREDICATE NOUN OR APPOSITIVE.—A pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predicate-Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Animal quem (for quod) võcāmus hõmīnem, the animal which we call man. Cic. Thēbae, quod (quae) căput est, Thebas which is the capital. Liv. Ea (id) ĕrat confessio, That (i. e., the action referred to) was a confession. Liv. Flūmen Rhēnus, qui, the river Rhine, which. Caes.

In the last example, qui agrees with the appositive Rhenus; in the other examples, the pronouns quem, quod, and ea, are attracted to agree with their predicate nouns hominem, caput, and confessio.

5. Construction according to Sense.—Sometimes the pronoun is construed according to the *real meaning* of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the *class of objects* to which the antecedent belongs:

Equitatus, qui viderunt, the cavalry who saw. Caes. Earum rerum utrumque, each of these things. Cic. Democritum omittamus; apud istos; let us omit Democritus; with such (i. e., as he). Cic.

6. Antecedent Omitted.—The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is the pronoun is, or is implied in a possessive:

Sunt qui censeant, There are some who think. Cic. Terra reddit quod accepit, The earth returns what it has received. Cic. Vestra, qui cum integritate vixistis, hoc interest, This interests you who have lived with integrity. Cic. Here the antecedent is ros, implied in restra.

7. Clause as Antecedent.—When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (445.4), is in the Neuter Singular, but the relative generally adds id as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod debet, patria delectat, Our country delights us, as it ought (lit. that which it owes). Cic.

8. Relative Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Jūdīce quo (for quem) nosti, the judge whom you know. Hor. Dies in-

stat, quo die, The day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Cumae, quam urbem tenebant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.

9. ANTECEDENT ATTRACTED.—In Poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated in the relative clause in the same case as the relative:

Urbem quam stătuo, vestra est, The city which I am building is yours. Virg. Mălārum, quas ămor cūras hăbet, oblivisci (for malārum curārum quas), to forget the wretched cares which love has. Hor.

I. Personal and Possessive Pronouns.

446. The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast:

Significāmus, quid sentiāmus, We show what we think. Cic. Ego rēges ejēci, vos tyrannos intrūdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

- 1. With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, and then the third person is supplied by hic, is, ille, which are then often redundant: tu quidem, you indeed, ille quidem, he indeed. Quidem adds emphasis; equidem = ego quidem.
- 2. The writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using nos for ego, noster for meus, and the plural verb for the singular.
 - 3. For Nostrum and Vestrum, see 396. 1.

447. Possessive Pronouns, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Mănus lăva, Wash your hands. Cic. Mihi mea vita cāra est, My life is dear to me. Plaut.

For Possessive with Genitive in the sense of own, see 397. 3.

Reflexive use of Pronouns.

448. Sui and Suus have a reflexive sense (himself, etc.); sometimes also the other Personal and Possessive pronouns, together with Is, Ille, and Ipse:

Se diligit, He loves himself. Cic. Sua vi movetur, He is moved by his own power. Cic. Me consolor, I console myself. Cic. Persuadent Tulingis uti cum iis proficiscantur, They persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Caes.

1. Inter nos, inter vos, inter se, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but instead of inter se, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Collòquimur inter nos, We converse together. Cic. Amant inter se, They love one another. Cic. Hömines höminibus ütiles sunt, Men are useful to men, i. e., to each other. Cic.

449. Sui and Suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Se diligit, He loves himself. Cic. Justitia propter sese colenda est, Justice should be cultivated for its own sake. Cic. Annulum suum dedit, He gave his ring. Nep.

1. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, Sui and Suus generally refer to that subject:

Sentit ănimus se vi sua moveri, The mind perecives that it is moved by its own power. Cic. A me petivit ut secum essem, He asked (from) me to he with him (that I would be). Cic. Pervestigat quid sui cives cogitent, He tries to ascertain what his fellow citizens think. Cic.

As Sui and Suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, Is, Ille, etc., generally refer either to other words, or to subjects, which do not admit sui and suus.

Deum agnoscis ex ejus opèribus, You recognize a god by (from) his works. Cic. Obligat civitătem nihil cos mūtātūros, He binds the state not to change anything

(that they will). Just.

- 2) In some subordinate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the Reflexive or the Demonstrative, according as he wishes to present the thought as that of the principal subject, or as his own. Thus in the last example under 445, cum its is the proper language for the writer without reference to the sentiment of the principal subject; sceum, which would be equally proper, would present the thought as the sentiment of that subject.
- Sometimes the Reflexive occurs where we should expect the Demonstrative, and the Demonstrative where we should expect the Reflexive.
- 2. Stus = His own, etc.—Suus in the sense of his own, fitting, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Justitia suum cuique tribuit, Justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic.

3. Construction according to Sense.—When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, sui and suus refer to the latter:

A Caesare invitor sibi ut sim legatus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cic.

4. Sucs Substantively.—The Plural of Suus used substantively—his, their friends, possessions, etc.—is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hoe luctuosum suis, This was afflicting to his friends. Cic. Here suis refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.

5. Str and Strs sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Deforme est de se praedicare, To boast of one's self is disgusting. Cic.

6. Reflexives referring to different Subjects.—Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit nëminem sëcum sine sua pernicie contendisse, He replied that no one had contended with him without (bis) destruction. Caes.

Here se refers to the subject of respondit and sua to $n\bar{\epsilon}min\epsilon m$, the subject of the subordinate clause.

II. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

450. Hic, Iste, Ille, are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as hic designates that which is near the speaker; iste, that which is near the person addressed, and ille, that which is remote from both, and near only to some third person.

Custos hujus urbis, the guardian of this city. Cic. Mūta istam mentem, Change that purpose of yours. Cic. Si illos negligis, if you disregard those, Cic.

1. Hic and Ille in Contrasts.—Hic designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space or time:

Non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro fuit ērădītus, He was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way. Cic.

2. Hic and Ille, former and latter.—In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) *Hic* generally follows *Ille* and refers to the latter object, while *Ille* refers to the former; but (2) *Hic* refers to the more important object, and *Ille* to the less important:

Ignāvia, läbor: illa,hie; Indolence, labor: the former, the latter. Cels. Pax, victoria: haee (pax) in tua, illa in deorum potestāte est; Peace, victory: the former is in your power, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.

- 3. *Hic* and *Ille* are often used of what immediately follows in discourse, and *Iste* sometimes indicates contempt: *haec verba*, these words, i. e., the following words; *iste*, that man, such a one.
 - 4. Ille is often used of what is well known, famous:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic.

- 1) $\it Hic$ with or without $\it hŏmo$, is sometimes equivalent to $\it ego$. Alone it is sometimes equivalent to $\it mens$ or $\it noster$.
- Hic, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem: Scipio non multum ille quidem dicibat, Scipio did not indeed say much. Cic. See 446. 1.
- 3) A Demonstrative or Relative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive or a Prep. with its case: $hic\ d\dot{v}lor = d\dot{o}lor\ hujus\ rei,\ grief$ on account of this; $haec\ c\ddot{u}ra = cura\ de\ hoc$, care concerning this.
- 451. Is and Idem refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Diŏnȳsius aufūgit: is est in prōvincia, Dionysius has fled: he is in the province. Cic. Is qui sătis hăbet, he who has enough. Cic. Eădem audire mālunt, They prefer to hear the same things. Liv.

1. Is is often omitted, especially before a relative or a genitive:

Flübat pater de filii morte, de patris filius, The father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Cic. See also 445. 6.

2. Is or Ipse with a Conjunction is often used for emphasis, like the English and that too, and that indeed:

Unam rem explicabo camque maximam, One thing I will explain and that too a most important one. Cic.

Id thus used often refers to a clause or to the general thought, and et ipse is often best rendered, too or also: Audire Crätippum, idque Δ thënis, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens. Cic.

3. Idem is sometimes best rendered, also, yet:

Nihil ütile, quod non idem honestum, Nothing useful, which is not also honorable. Cic. Quum dicat—negat idem, Though he asserts—he yet denies (the same denies). Cic.

4. Is-qui = he-who, such-as, such-that:

It sumus, qui esse debēmus, We are such as we ought to be. Cic. Ea est gens quae nesciat, The race is such that it knows not. Liv.

5. Idem—qui; idem—ac, atque, quam, quasi, ut, cum with Abl. = the same—who, the same—as:

Indem mores, qui, The same manners which or as. Cic. Est idem ac fuit, He is the same as he was. Ter.

6. Is Reflexive. See 448.

452. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Ipse Caesar, Caesar himself. Cic. Fac ut te ipsum custōdias, See that you guard yourself. Cic.

 IPSE WITH SUBJECT.—Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject:

Me ipse consolor, I myself (not another) console myself. Cic.

2. IPSE, VERY.—Ipse is often best rendered by rery:

Ipse ille Gorgias, that very Gorgias. Cic.

3. With Numerals Ipse has the force of-just so many, just:

Trīginta dies ipsi, just thirty days. Cic.

4. Ipse in the Genitive with possessives has the force of own, one's own:

Nostra ipsorum amīcitia, Our own friendship. Cic. See 397. 3.

Ipse Reflexive, sometimes supplies the place of an emphatic sui or suus:
 Lègatos misit qui ipsi vitam pétèrent, He sent messengers to ask life for him-

self. Sall.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

453. The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Res löquitur ipsa; quae semper vălet; The fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cic. Qui proclium committunt, They engage battle. Caes. Quae quum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic.

- 1. Relative with Demonstrative.—Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other: hic-qui, iste-qui, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see is-qui, idem-qui, 451. 4 and 5.
- Quicunque and Quisquis, whoever, whatever, sometimes have the force of every by the ellipsis of fieri potest: quacunque ratione, in every way, i. c., in whatever way it is possible.

2. A Demonstrative may supply the place of a Relative when otherwise two relative clauses would be brought together:

Quae nec hăberemus nec his ūteremur, Which we should neither have nor use. Cic.

- 1) Δ Relative Clause with is is often equivalent to a substantive; ii qui audiunt = auditores, hearers.
 - 3. Two Relatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Artes quas qui tenent, arts, whose possessors (which, who possess). Cic.

4. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to Pro with the Abl.:

Quae tua prūdentia est = qua es prūdentia = pro tua prūdentia = such is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prudence, etc.: Spēro, quae tua prūdentia est, te vălēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.).

5. RELATIVE WITH ADJECTIVE.—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals:

Vāsa, quae pulcherrīma vīdērat, the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (vessels, which the most beautiful he had seen). Cic. De servis suis, quem hābuit fīdēlissīmum, mīsit, He sent the most faithful of the slaves which he had. Nep.

6. Quod Expletive, or apparently so, often stands at the beginning of a sentence, especially before ni, nisi, etsi, and sometimes before quia, quintam, utinam, etc. In translating it is sometimes omitted, and sometimes rendered by now, but, and:

Quod si ečeiděrint, if or but if they should fall. Cic.

7. Qui dicitur, qui vòcutur, or the corresponding active quem dicunt, quem vòcant, are often used in the sense of so called, the so called, what they or you call, etc.:

Vestra quae dicitur vita, mors est, Your so called life (lit. your, which is called life) is death. Cie. Lex ista quam võcas non est lex, That law as you call it, is not a law. Cie.

IV. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

454. The Interrogative quis, is used substantively; qui, adjectively:

Quis čgo sum, Who am I? Cic. Quid făciet, What will he do? Cic. Qui vir fuit, What kind of a man was he? Cic.

Quis and Qui.—Occasionally quis is used adjectively and qui substantively:
 Quis rex unquam fuit, What king was there ever? Cic. Qui sis, considera, Consider who you are. Cic.

2. Quid, why, how is it that, etc., is often used adverbially (380. 2), or stands apparently unconnected, by the ellipsis of propter or a verb: Quid ènim, why then? what indeed (est or dicam)? Quid quod, what of the fact that?

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudävit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (lit, who defrauded whom)? Cic.

4. ATTRACTION.—The interrogative often agrees with the predicate noun: Quam (for quid) dicam voluptatem videtis, You see what I call pleasure. Cic.

V. Indefinite Pronouns.

455. Aliquis, quis, qui, and quispiam, are all indefinite, some one, any one:

Est ăliquis, there is some one. Liv. Dixit quis, some one said. Cic. Si quis rex, if any king. Cic. Alia res quaepiam, any other thing. Cic.

1. Aliquis is less indefinite than quis, qui, and quispiam.

Quis and qui are used chiefly after si, nisi, ne, and num. Quis is generally used substantively and qui adjectively. Aliquis after si, etc., is emphatic.

456. Quidam, a certain one, is less indefinite than aliquis:

Quīdam rhētor antīquus, a certain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quīdam, A certain one runs up. Hor.

1. $Qu\bar{\imath}dam$ with an Adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement:

Justitia mīrifica quaedam vidētur, Justice seems somewhat wonderful. Cic.

2. Quidam with quasi and sometimes without it, has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:

Quăsi ălumna quaedam, a certain foster child as it were. Cic.

457. Quisquam and ullus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative:

Neque me quisquam agnovit, Nor did any one recognize me. Cic. Si quisquam, if any one. Cic. Num censes ullum animal esse, do you think there is any animal? Cic.

1. Nemo is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used substantively, rarely adjectively:

Nëminem laesit, He harmed no one. Cic. Nëmo poëta, no poet. Cic.

 Nullus is the negative of ullus, and is generally used adjectively, but it sometimes supplies the Gen, and Abl. of nemo, which generally wants those cases:

Nullum ănimal, no animal. Cic. Nullius aures, the ears of no one. Cic.

3. Nullus for non.—Nullus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non: Nullus vēnit, He did not come. Cic. Mortui nulli sunt, The dead are not. Cic.

458. Quīvis, Quīlibet, any one whatever, and Quisque, every one, each one, are general indefinites (191):

*Quaelibet res, any thing. Cic. Tuōrum quisque nĕcessāriōrum, cach one of your friends. Cic.

 Quisque with Superlatives and Ordinals is generally best rendered by all or by ever, always, with primus by very, possible:

Epicureos doctissimus quisque contemnit, All the most learned despise the Epicureans or the most learned ever despise, etc. Cic. Primo quoque die, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.

2. Ut Quisque—ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered,

the more—the more:

Ut quisque sibi plarimum confidit, ita maxime excellit, The more one confides in himself, the more he excels. Cic.

459. Alius and Alter are often repeated: alius—alius, one—another; alii—alii, some—others; alter—alter, the one—the other; alteri—alteri, the one party—the other:

Alii glūriae serviunt, ălii pǔcūniae, Some are slaves to glory, others to money. Cic. Altĕri dīmĭcant, altĕri timent, One party contends, the other fears. Cic.

1. Alius repeated in different cases often involves an ellipsis:

Alius ălia via civitâtem auxērunt, They advanced the state, one in one way, another in another. Liv. So also with álias or álíter: Aliter ălii vivunt, Some live in one way, others in another. Cic.

2. After Alius, Aliter, and the like, atque, ac, and et often mean than:

Non ălius essem atque sum, I would not be other than I am. Cic.

3. Alter means the one, the other (of two), the second; alius, another, other. When alter—alter refers to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually refers to the latter object, but may refer to either:

Inimicus, compétitor, cum altéro—cum altéro, an enemy, a rival, with the latter—with the former. Cic.

4. Uterque means both, each of two, and in the Plu. both, each of two parties.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS.

RULE XXXV.-Verb with Subject.

460. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in NUMBER and PERSON:

Deus mundum aedīfīcāvit, God made the world. Cic. Ego rēges ejēci, vos týrannos intrūdūcītis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Participles in Compound Tenses agree with the subject according to 438. See also 301.2 and 3:

Thebani accusati sunt, The Thebans were accused. Cic.

1) In the Infinitive, the Participle in um sometimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the subject:

Diffidentia futurum quae imperavisset, from doubt that those things which he had communded would take place. Sall.

- 2. Subject Omitted. See 367. 2.
- 1) An Indefinite Subject is often denoted by the Second Pers. Sing., or by the First or Third Plur.: dieas, you (any one) may say; dieimus, we (people) say; dieunt, they say.
 - 3. Verb Omitted.—See 367. 3.
- 461. Construction according to Sense.—Sometimes the Predicate is construed according to the *real meaning* of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus
 - 1. With Collective Nouns, pars, multitūdo, and the like:

Multĭtūdo ăbeunt, The multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agros dīlapsi, a part (some) dispersed through the fields. Liv.

- 1) Here $multit\bar{u}do$ and pars, though Sing. and Fem. in form, are Plur. and Masc. in sense. See also 438. 6.
- Conversely the Imperative Singular may be used in addressing a multitude individually: Adde defectionem Siciliae, Add (to this, soldiers,) the revolt of Sicily. Liv.
- 3) Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often Sing., and the latter Plur.: Jüventus ruit certantque, The youth rush forth and contend. Virg.
 - 2. With Millia, often masculine in sense:

Caesi sunt tria millia, Three thousand men were slain. Liv.

3. With $\it Quisque,\ Tterque,\ Alius-Alium,\ Alter-Alterum,\ and\ the\ like \cdot$

Uterque ēdūcunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter alterum vidēmus, We see each other. Cic.

4. With Singular Subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum principibus căpiuntur, The leader with his chiefs is taken. Liv. See 438. 6.

5. With Partim-Partim in the sense of pars-pars:

Bŏnōrum partim necessaria, partim non necessaria sunt, Of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.

462. AGREEMENT WITH APPOSITIVE OR PREDICATE NOUN.—Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive or Predicate Noun:

Volsĭnii, oppīdum Tuscōrum, concremātum est, Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned. Plin. Non omnis error stultītia est dīcenda, Not every error should be called folly. Cic.

- The Verb regularly agrees with the appositive when that is urbs, oppidum, or cīvitas, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.
- 1) The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clause after quam, n'ssi, etc.: Nihil iliud n'isi pax quaesita est (not quaesitum), Nothing but peace was sought. Cic.
- 2. The verb agrees with the predicate noun, when that is nearer or more emphatic than the subject, as in the second example.

- 463. AGREEMENT WITH COMPOUND SUBJECT.—With two or more subjects the verb agrees—
 - I. With one subject and is understood with the others:

Aut mores spectari aut fortuna solet, Either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Cic. Homerus fuit et Hesiodus ante Romam conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived (were) before the founding of Rome. Cic.

II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the Plural Number:

Lentulus, Scīpio pěriērunt, Lentulus and Scipio perished. Cic. Ego et Cicero vălēmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Tu et Tullia vălētis, You and Tullia are well. Cic.

- 1. Person.—With subjects differing in Person, the verb takes the First Person rather than the Second, and the Second rather than the Third, as in the examples just given.
 - 2. Participles.—See 439.

3. Two Subjects as a Unit.—Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Senātus populusque intellīgit, The senate and people (i. e., the state as a unit) understand. Cic. Tempus necessitasque postulat, Time and necessity (i. e., the crisis) demand. Cic.

4. Subjects with Aut or Nec.—With singular subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or seu, the verb generally agrees with the nearest subject, but with subjects differing in person, it is generally Plur.:

Aut Brūtus aut Cassius jūdīcāvit, Either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cic. Haec něque ěgo něque tu fēcimus, Neither you nor I have done these things. Ter.

SECTION II.

USE OF VOICES.

464. In a transitive verb, the Active voice represents the subject as acting upon some object, the Passive, as acted upon by some other person or thing:

Deus mundum aedĭficāvit, God made the world. Cic. A Deo omnia facta sunt, All things were made by God. Cic.

- 465. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But
- I. That which in the active construction would be the object must be the subject in the passive; and
- II. That which in the active would be the subject must be put in the ablative with a or ab, for persons, without it for things: (371.6);

Deus omnia constituit, God ordained all things, or: A Deo omnia constituta sunt, All things were ordained by God. Cic. Dei providentia mundum administrat, The providence of God rules the world, or: Dei providentia mundus administratur, The world is ruled by the providence of God. Cic.

1. The Passive Voice is sometimes equivalent to the Act, with a reflex-

ive pronoun, like the Greek Middle:

Lăvantur in fluminibus, They bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Caes.

2. Intransitive Veres (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:

Curritur ad praetorium, They run to the praetorium (it is run to). Cic.

3 Deponent Verbs, though Passive in form, are in signification transitive or intransitive:

Illud mīrābar, I admired that. Cic. Ab urbe prŏfīcisci, to set out from the city. Caes.

4. Semi-Deponents (272. 3) have some of the Active forms and some of the Passive, without change of meaning.

SECTION III.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

I. Present Indicative.

466. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicero vălemus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hoc te rogo, I ask you for this. Cic.

- 467. Hence the Present Tense is used,
- I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.
- II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as *general truths* and *customs*:

Nihil est ămābĭlius virtūte, Nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Fortes fortūna adjūvat, Fortune helps the brave. Ter.

III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the Historical Present:

Jŭgurtha vallo moenia circumdat, Jugurtha surrounds the city with a rampart. Sall.

1. HISTORICAL PRESENT.—The historical present may sometimes be best rendered by the English Imperfect, and sometimes by the English Present, as that has a similar historical use.

2. PRESENT WITH JAMDIU, JAMDUDUM.—The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, rendered have, especially after jamdiu, jamdūdum, etc.

Jamdiu ignōro quid \mbox{igas} , I have not known for a long time what you are doing. Cic.

- 1) The Imperfect is used in the same way of a past action which had been going on for some time. Thus in the example above, Jamdiu ignorābam, would mean, I had not known for a long time.
- 2) The Present in the Infinitive and Participle is used in the same way of an action which has been or had been going on for some time.
- 3. PRESENT APPLIED TO AUTHORS.—The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xěnophon făcit Socrătem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates discussing. Cic.

4. PRESENT WITH DUM.—With dum, in the sense of while, the Present is generally used, even of past actions:

Dum ea părant, Săguntum oppugnābātur, While they were (are) making these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv.

5. PRESENT FOR FUTURE.—The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in conditions:

Si vincimus, omnia tuta črunt, If we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

II. IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time:

Stābant noblilssīmi jūvenes, There stood (were standing) most noble youths. Liv. Colles oppidum eingebant, Hills encompassed the town. Caes.

469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially

I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events:

Ante oppidum plānities pātēbat, Before the town extended a plain. Caes. Fulgentes glādios vidēbant, They saw (were seeing) the gleaming swords, Cic.

II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered by was wont, etc.:

Pausanias epălābātur more Persārum, Pausanias was wont to banquet in the Persian style. Nep.

1. Imperfect of Attempted Action.—The Imperfect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action :

Sēdābant tumultus, They attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.

2. Imperfect in Letters.—See 472. 1.

III. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scrībam ad te, I will write to you. Cic. Nunquam aberrābīmus, Wc shall never go astray. Cic.

1. FUTURE WITH IMPERATIVE FORCE.—In Latin as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Cūrābis et scrībes, You will take care and write. Cic.

2. LATIN FUTURE FOR ENGLISH PRESENT.—Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future Tense, though sometimes put in the present in English:

Nātūram si sequemur, nunquam aberrabimus, If we follow nature, we

shall never go astray. Cic.

3. FUTURE INDICATIVE WITH MELIUS.—With melius the Future Indicative has often the force of the Subjunctive:

Mělius pěribímus, We would perish rather, or it would be better for us to perish. Liv.

IV. Perfect Indicative.

471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De genere belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cic.

II. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, it represents the action as a simple historical fact:

Miltiades est accūsātus, Miltiades was accused. Nep.

1. Perfect of what has ceased to be.—The Perfect is sometimes used where the emphasis rests particularly on the *completion* of the action, implying that what was true of the past, is not true of the present:

Habuit, non habet, He had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Ilium, Ilium was.

Virg.

2. Perfect Indicative with Paene, Prope.—The Perfect Indicative with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brūtum non minus amo, paene dixi, quam te, I lore Brutus not less, I might almost say, or I had almost said, than I do you. Cic.

3. Perfect for English Present.—The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297).

Měmĭnit praetěrĭtōrum, He remembers the past. Cic. Quum ad villam vēni, hoc me dělectat, When I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Mémĭněram Paulum, I remembered Paulus. Cic.

4. Perfect with Postquam.—Postquam, ut, ut primum, etc., in the sense of as soon as, are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is generally used of repeated actions; also after postquam when a long or definite interval intervenes:

Postquam cĕcĭdit Ilium, after (as soon as) Ilium fell. Virg. Anno tertio postquam prŏfūgĕrat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

 As a Rare Exception the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive occur after postquam (posteāquam): Posteāquam aedificasset classes, after he had built fleets. Cic.

V. PLUPERFECT INDICATIVE.

472. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some definite past time:

Cōpias quas pro castris collŏcāvĕrat, rĕduxit, He led back the forces which he had stationed before the camp. Caes.

1. Tenses.—In letters the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Imperfect or Perfect:

Nihil hăbēbam quod scrībĕrem: ad tuas omnes ĕpistŏlas rescripsĕram, I have (had) nothing to write: I have already replied to all your letters (I had replied, i. e., before writing this). Cic.

- 1) The Perfect is sometimes used of Future actions, as events which happen after the writing of the letter but before the receipt of it will be Future to the writer but Past to the reader.
 - 2. Pluperfect for English Imperfect.—See 471. 3.
- 2. Pluperfect to denote Rapidity.—The Pluperfect sometimes denotes rapidity or completeness af action:

Urbem luctu compleverant, They (had) filled the city with mourning. Curt.

VI. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rōmam quum vēněro, scrībam ad te, When I shall have reached Romc, I will write to you. Cic. Dum tu haec leges, ego illum fortasse conveñero, When you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. Future Perfect to denote Certainty.—The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the speedy or complete accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium praestitero, I will surely discharge my duty. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect for English Present or Future is rare, but occurs in conditional clauses:

Si interprětări pŏtuëro, his verbis ūtĭtur, If I can (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

SECTION IV.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

RULE XXXVI.-Indicative.

474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum ae-lificavit, God made the world. Cic. Nonne expulsus est patria, Was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hoc fēci, dum līcuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cic.

- 475. Special Uses.—The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:
- 1. The *Indicative* of the *Periphrastic Conjugations* is often so used in the historical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (512. 2):

Have condition on accipienda fuit, This condition should not have been accepted. Cic.

2. The *Historical Tenses* of the *Indicative*, particularly the *Pluperfect*, are sometimes used for *Effect*, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Vicerāmus, nīsi recepisset Antonium, We should have (lit. had) conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511. 2.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix cunque (187. 4), take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est săpiens, Whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hoc ultimum, utcunque inĭtum est, proelium fuit, This, however it was commenced, was the last battle. Liv.

4. In Expressions of Duty, Necessity, Ability, and the like, the Latin bften uses the Indicative where the English does not:

Tardius quam debuerat, more slowly than he should have done. Cic.

 So also in sum with aequum, par, justum, mélius, útilius, longum, difficile, and the like: Longum est perséqui ütilitätes. It would be tedious (is a long task) to enumerate the uses. Cic.

SECTION V.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

476. Tense in the Subjunctive does not designate the time of the action as definitely as in the Indicative, but it marks with great exactness its continuance or completion.

477. The Present and Imperfect express Incomplete action:

Văleant cives, May the citizens be well. Cic. Utinam vēra invěnīre possem, O that I were able to find the truth. Cic.

478. The Perfect and Pluperfect express Completed action:

Oblītus es quid dixērim, You have forgotten what I said. Cic. Themistocles, quum Graeciam līberasset, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.

- 479. The Future Tenses are wanting in the Subjunctive: the mood itself—used only of that which is merely conceived and uncertain—is so nearly related to the Future, that those tenses are seldom needed. Their place is however supplied, when necessary, by the periphrastic forms in rus (481. III. 1).
- 480. Sequence of Tenses.—The Subjunctive Tenses in their use conform to the following

RULE XXXVII.—Sequence of Tenses.

Principal tenses depend upon Principal tenses: Historical upon Historical:

Nītītur ut vincat, He strives to conquer. Cic. Nēmo ĕrit qui censeat, There will be no one who will think. Cic. Quaesiĕras nonne putārem, You had asked, whether I did not think. Cic.

- 481. Application of the Rule.—In accordance with this rule,
- I. The Subjunctive dependent upon a Principal tense—present, present perfect, future, future perfect—is put,
 - 1. In the Present for Incomplete Action:

Video quid agas, Vidi quid agas, Vidēbo quid agas, Vidēro quid agas, I see what you are doing.
I have seen what you are doing.
I shall see what you do.
I shall have seen what you do,

2. In the Perfect for Completed Action:

Video quid egeris, Vidi quid egeris, Videbo quid egeris, Videro quid egeris, I sce what you have done. I have seen what you have done. I shall see what you have done. I shall have seen what you have done.

- II. The Subjunctive dependent upon a Historical tense—imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect—is put,
 - 1. In the Imperfect for Incomplete Action:

Vidēbam quid ăgĕres, Vīdi quid ageres, Vīdēram quid ageres, I saw what you were doing. Vīdēram quid ageres, I had seen what you were doing.

2. In the Pluperfect for Completed Action:

Vīdēbam quid ēgisses, I saw what you had done.
Vīdi quid egisses, I saw what you had done.
Vīdēram quid ēgisses, I had seen what you had done.

III. The Periphrastic Forms in rus conform to the rule:

Video quid actūrus sis, I see what you are going to do. Vidēbam quid actūrus esses, I saw what you were going to do.

1. Future Supplied.—The Future is supplied when necessary (470), (1) by the Present 1 or Imperfect Subjunctive of the periphrastic forms in rus, or (2) by futurum sit ut,2 with the regular Present, and futurum esset ut, with the regular Imperfect. The first method is confined to the Active, the second occurs in both voices:

Incertum est quam longa vīta fūtūra sit, It is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum ĕrat quo missūri classem fŏrent, It was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

2. Future Perfect Supplied.—The Future Perfect is supplied, when necessary, by futurum sit ut, with the Perfect, and futurum esset ut, with the Pluperfect. But this circumlocution is rarely necessary. In the Passive it is sometimes abridged to futurus sim and futurus essem, with the Perfect participle:

Non dubito quin confecta jam res futura sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished. Cic.

IV. The HISTORICAL PRESENT is treated sometimes as a Principal tense, as it really is in Form, and sometimes as a Historical tense, as it really is in Sense.

1. As Principal tense according to its Form:

Ubii orant, ut sibi parcat, The Ubii implore him to spare them. Caes.

2. As Historical tense according to its Sense:

Persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet, He persuaded Casticus to seize the government. Caes.

V. The Imperfect Subjunctive often refers to present time, especially in conditional sentences (510. 1); accordingly, when thus used, it is treated as a Principal tense:

¹ The Present, of course, after Principal tenses, and the Imperfect after Historical tenses, according to 480.

 $^{^2}$ Futurum sit, etc., after Principal tenses, and futurum $\epsilon sset,$ etc., after Historical tenses.

Měmorāre possem quibus in lòcis hostes fūděrit, I might (now) state in what places he routed the enemy. Sall.

VI. The Present and Future Infinitives, Present and Future Participles, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (540.571):

Spēro fŏre¹ ut contingat, I hope it will happen (I hope it will be that it may happen). Cie. Non spērāvěrat fŏre ut ad se dēfīeĕrent, He had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv.

- 482. PECULIARITIES IN SEQUENCE.—The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:
- 1. After Perfect Tense.—The Latin Perfect is sometimes treated as a Historical tense, even when rendered with have, and thus admits the *Imperfect* or *Pluperfect*:

Quŏniam quae subsidia hăbēres expŏsui,² nunc dieam, Since I have shown what aids you have (or had), I will now speak. Cic.

2. After Historical Tenses.—Conversely Historical tenses, when followed by clauses denoting consequence or result, often conform to the law of sequence for Principal tenses, and thus admit the Present or Perfect:

Epămīnondas fide sie ūsus est, ut possit jūdicāri, Epaminondas used such fidelity that it may be judged. Nep. Adeo excellēbat Aristīdes abstīnentia, ut Justus sit appellātus, Aristīdes so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

This peculiarity arises from the fact that the Result of a past action may itself be present and may thus be expressed by a Principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: possit jūdīcāri, may be judged now; when it is represented as at present completed, the Perfect is used: sit appellātus, has been called i. e. even to the present day; but when it is represented as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule of sequence (450).

3. In Indirect Discourse, Oratio Orlingta.—In indirect discourse (528, and 533, 1) dependent upon a Historical tense, the narrator often uses the Principal tenses to give a lively effect to his narrative; occasionally also in direct discourse:

Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis: Něque ullos văcāre agros, qui dări possint; The close of the oration was, that there were (are) not any lands unoccupied which could (can) be given. Caes.

¹ Here fire shares the tense of spēro, and is accordingly followed by the Present contingat, but below it shares the tense of spērāvèrat, and is accordingly followed by the Imperfect dēficerent.

² Exposui, though best rendered by our Perf. Def. with have, is in the Latin treated as the Historical Perf. The thought is as follows: Since in the preceding topics I set forth the aids which you had, I will now speak, &c.

SECTION VI.

USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

- 483. The Subjunctive represents the action of the verb, not as an actual fact, but as something supposed or conceived. It may denote that the action is conceived,
 - 1. As Possible, Potential.

2. As Desirable.

3. As a Purpose or Result.

4. As a Condition.

- 5. As a Concession.
- 6. As a Cause or Reason.

7. As an Indirect Question.

- 8. As dependent upon another subordinate action: (1) By Attraction after another Subjunctive, (2) In Indirect Discourse.
- 484. Varieties.—The Subjunctive in its various uses may accordingly be characterized as follows:

I. The Potential Subjunctive.

II. The Subjunctive of Desire.

III. The Subjunctive of Purpose or Result

IV. The Subjunctive of Condition.

V. The Subjunctive of Concession. VI. The Subjunctive of Cause or Reason.

VII. The Subjunctive in Indirect Questions.

VIII. The Subjunctive by Attraction.

IX. The Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse.

I. THE POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

RULE XXXVIII.—Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Potential Subjunctive represents the action not as real, but as *possible*:

Forsitan quaerātis, Perhaps you may inquire. Cic. Hoc nēmo dixērit, No one would say this. Cie. Huic cēdāmus, hujus condītiones audiāmus, Shall we yield to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quis dubitet (= nēmo dubītat), Who would doubt, or who doubts (= no one doubts)? Cic. Quid făcĕrem, What was I to do, or what should I have done? Virg.

486. Application of the Rule.—In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used,

- I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation doubtfully or conditionally, as in the first and second examples.
- II. In Questions of Appeal, to ask not what is, but what may be or should be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last example under the rule.
- III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:

Quamquam ěpălis căreat sĕnectus, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic. Quŏniam non possent, since they would not be able. Caes. Ubi res poscěret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.

Here the Subjunctive after quamquam, quoniam, and übi, is entirely independent of those conjunctions. In this way many conjunctions which do not require the Subjunctive, admit that mood whenever the thought requires it.

- 1. Use of the Potential Subjunctive.—This Subjunctive, it will be observed, has a wide application, and is used in almost all kinds of sentences and clauses, whether declarative or interrogative, principal or subordinate, whether introduced by conjunctions or relatives.
- 2. How rendered.—The Potential Subjunctive is generally best rendered by our Potential signs—may, can, must, might, etc., or by shall or will.
 - 3. Inclination.—The Subjunctive sometimes denotes inclination:

Ego censeam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv.

4. IMPERFECT FOR PLUPERFECT.—In the Potential sense, the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect: dieres, you would have said; crēderes, puttures, you would have thought; videres, cernères, you would have seen:

Moesti, crederes victos, redeunt in castra, Sad, ranquished you would kave thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.

5. Subjunctive of Repeated Action.—Subordinate clauses in narration sometimes take the Subjunctive to denote that the action is often or indefinitely repeated. Thus with ŭbi, whenever, quoties, as often as, quicunque, whoever, ut quisque, as each one, and the like:

Id fetialis úbi dixisset, hastam mittebat, The fetial priest was wont to hurl a spear whenever (i. e., every time) he had said this. Liv.

6. PRESENT AND PERFECT.—In the Potential Subjunctive the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present:

Tu Plătonem laudāveris, You would praise Plato. Cic.

- The Perfect with the force of the Present occurs also in some of the other uses of the Subjunctive.
- 7. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.—The Subjunctive in the conclusion of conditional sentences is the Potential Subjunctive, but conditional sentences will be best treated by themselves. See 502.

¹ These are also variously called Deliberative, Doubting, or Rhetorica? Questions.

II. THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF DESIRE.

RULE XXXIX.—Desire, Command.

487. The Subjunctive of Desire represents the action not as real, but as *desired*:

Văleant cives, May the citizens be well. Cic. Amemus patriam, Let us love our country. Cic. Röböre ütüre, Use your strength. Cic. Scribere ne pigrēre, Do not neglect to write. Cic.

- 488. Application of the Rule.—The Subjunctive of Desire is used,
- I. To express a wish, as in prayers, exhortations, and entreaties, as in the first and second examples.
- II. To express a command mildly, as in admonitions, precepts, and warnings, as in the third and fourth examples.
- WITH UTINAM.—The Subjunctive of Desire is often accompanied by utinam, and sometimes—especially in the poets, by ut, si, o si:

Utinam conata efficere possim, May I be able to accomplish my endeavors. Cic.

2. Force of Tenses.—The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it cannot be fulfilled;

Sint beāti, May they be happy. Cic. Ne transiéris Iberum, Do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam possem, útinam potuissem, Would that I were able, would that I had been able. Cic. See also 486, 6, 1).

The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered, should have been, ought to have been:

Hec dieeret. He should have said this. Cic. Mortem oppetiisses, You should have met death. Cic.

- 3. Negative Ne.—With this Subjunctive the negative is ne. rarely non: Ne audeant, Let them not dare. Cic. Non iecedamus, Let us not recede. Cic.
- 4. In Asseverations.—The first person of the subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn affirmations or asseverations:

Mŏriar, si pŭto, May I die, if I think. Cic. Ne sim salvus, si scrībo, May I not be safe, if I write. Cic.

So with ita and sic: Sollicitat, ita vivam, As I live, it troubles mc. Cic.

Here $ita\ vivam$ means literally, $may\ I$ so live, i. e., may I live only in case this is true.

5. In Relative Clauses.—The Subjunctive of desire is sometimes used in relative clauses:

Quod faustum sit, regem create. Elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be auspicious). Liv. Senectus, ad quam utinam perveniatis, old age, to which may you attain. Cic.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE OR RESULT.

RULE XL.—Purpose or Result.

489. The Subjunctive of Purpose or Result is used,

I. With ut, ne, quo, quin, quōmĭnus:

Purpose.—Enititur ut vincat, He strives that he may conquer. Cic. Pünit ne peccetur, He punishes that crime may not be committed. Sen.

Result.--Ita vixit ut Atheniensībus esset cārissīmus, He so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep.

II. With qui = ut is, ut ego, tu, etc.:

Purpose.—Missi sunt, qui (ut ii) consulérent Apollinem, They were sent to consult Apollo (who should or that they should). Nep.

Result.—Non is sum qui (ut ego) his ūtar, I am not such an one as to use these things. Cic.

1. Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with fácio, or ágo, rarely with est a circumlocution for the Indicative: fácio ut dicam = dīco; fácio ut scribam = scribo: Invitus fácio ut récorder, I unwillingly recall. Cic.

Conjunctions of Purpose or Result.

- 490. Ut and Ne.—Ut and ne are the regular conjunctions in clauses denoting Purpose or Result. Ut and ne denote Purpose; ut and ut non, Result.
- 1. With connective ne becomes neve, new, rarely neque. Neve, new, = aut ne or et ne: Legem tülit nequis accusaretur neve multaretur, He proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished. Nep.
- 491. Pure Purpose.—Ut and ne—that, in order that, that not, in order that not, lest, etc.—are used after verbs of a great variety of significations to express simply the Purpose of the action. A correlative—ideo, idcirco, etc.—may or may not precede:

Lēgum ideireo servi sumus, ut lībēri esse possīmus, We are servants of the law for this reason, that we may be free. Cic. See also the examples under the Rule.

- 492. MIXED PURPOSE.—In their less obvious applications, ut and ne are used to denote a Purpose which partakes more or less of the character of a Direct Object, sometimes of a Subject, Predicate or Appositive—Mixed Purpose. Thus with verbs and expressions denoting
 - 1. Effort.—striving for a purpose; attaining a purpose:

nītor, contendo, stúdeo,—cūro, id ago, ŏpěram do, etc., facio, efficio, impetro, conséquor, etc.:

Contendit, ut vincat, He strives to conquer. Cic. Cūrāvi ut bene vīverem, I took care to lead a good life. Sen. Effect ut imperātor mitteretur, He caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. But see 495.

2. Exhortation, Impulse—urging one to effort:

admŏneo, mŏneo, hortor,—cōgo, impello, mŏveo,—ōro, rŏgo,—impĕro, praecĭpio, etc. :

Te hortor ut legas, I exhort you to read. Cic. Movemur ut boni simus, We are influenced to be good. Cic. Te rogo ut eum juves, I ask you to aid him. Cic. See also 551. II. 1 and 2; 558. VI.

3. Desire and its Expression: hence decision, decree, etc.:

opto, postŭlo,—censeo, decerno, stătuo, constituo, etc.—rarely vŏlo, nōlo, mālo:

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire (pray) that you may hear this. Cic. Sēnātus censuĕrat, ŭti Aeduos dēfendĕret, The senate had decreed that he should defend the Aedui. Caes. See 551. II. and 558. II. and VI.

4. FEAR, DANGER:

mětuo, timeo, věreor,-périculum est, cura est, etc.:

Timeo, ut sustineas, I fear you will not endure them. Cic. Véreor ne läbōrem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic.

- By a Difference of Idiom ut must here be rendered that not, and ne by that
 or lest. The Latin treats the clause as a wish, a desired purpose.
- After verbs of fearing ne non is sometimes used for ut, regularly so after negative clauses: Vercor ne non possit, I fear that he will not be able. Cic.
- After verbs of fearing, especially réreor, the infinitive is sometimes used: Véreor laudâre, Ifear (hesitate) to praise. Cic.
- 493. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Purpose present the following peculiarities:
 - 1. Ut ne, rarely ut non, is sometimes used for ne:

Praedixit, ut ne legătos dimittérent. He charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plura non dicam, not to say more, i. e., that I may not. Cic.

2. Ut is sometimes omitted especially with rölo, nolo, malo, fácio, and verbs of directing urging, etc. No is often omitted with cáre:

Tu vělim sis, I desire that you may be. Cic. Fac håbeas, see (make) that you have. Cic. Sěnātus decrēvit, dårent ŏpěram consúles, The senate decreed that the consuls should see to it. Sall. See also 535. 1, 2).

3. Clauses with Ut and Ne may depend upon a noun or upon a verb omitted:

Fecit pacem his conditionibus, ne qui afficerentur exsilio, He made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep. Ut ita dicam, so to speak (that I may speak thus). Cic. This is often inserted in a sentence, like the English so to speak.

4. Nedum and Ne in the sense of much less, not to say, are used with the Subjunctive:

Vix in teetis frigus vītātur, nēdum in mări sit făcile, The cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy (to avoid it) on the sea. Cic.

494. Pure Result.—Ut and ut non—so that, so that not—are often used with the Subjunctive, to express simply a Result or a Consequence:

Ita vixit ut Athēniensībus esset cārissīmus, He so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Ita laudo, ut non pertimeseam, I so praise as not to fear. Cic.

A correlative—'ita in these examples—generally precedes: thus, ita, sie, tam, adeo, tantopère,—talis, tantus, ejusmodi.

- 495. MIXED RESULT.—In their less obvious applications, ut and ut non are used with the Subjunctive to denote a Result which partakes of the character of a Direct Object, Subject, Iredicate, or Appositive: Thus
- 1. Clauses as Object and Result occur with fucio, efficio, of the action of irrational forces:

Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, The sun causes all things to bloom, i. e., produces that result. Cic. Sec 492. 1.

2. Clauses as Subject and Result occur with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is distant, etc.:

aceidit, contingit, ēvěnit, fit, restat,-sěquitur,-abest, etc.

Fit ut quisque delectetur, The result is (it happens) that every one is delighted. Cic. Sequitur ut falsum sit, It follows that it is false. Cic.

1) The Subjunctive is sometimes, though rarely, used when the predicate is a Noun or Adjective with the copula sum:

Mos est ut nölint, It is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cic. Proximum est, ut döceam, The next point is, that I show. Cic. See 556. I. 1 and 2.

2) Subjunctive Clauses with ut, in the form of questions expressive of surprise, sometimes stand alone, by the omission of some predicate, as $credendum\ est$, $verisimile\ est$, is it to be credited, is it probable?

Tu ut unquam te corrigas, that you should ever reform? i. e., Is it to be supposed that you will ever reform? Cic.

- 3) See also 556 with its subdivisions.
- 3. Clauses as Appositive and Result, or Predicate and Result, occur with Demonstratives and a few Nouns:

Häbet hoe virtus ut delectet, Virtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cic. Est hoe vitium, ut invidia gloriae comes sit, There is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory. Nep.

- 496. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Result present the following peculiarities:
- 1. Ut is sometimes omitted, regularly so with ŏportet, generally with ŏpus est and nõcesse est:

Te ŏportet virtus trăhat, Il is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam hăbeat necesse est, It is necessary that it should have a cause. Cic.

2. The Subjunctive occurs with Quam—with or without ut:

Līběrālius quam ut posset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Impūnūbat amplius quam ferre possent, He imposed more than they were able to bear.

3. Tantum ăbest.—After tantum ăbest ut, denoting result, a second ut of result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest, ut laudetur ut etiam vituperetur, So far is it from the truth (so much is wanting), that philosophy is praised that it is even censured. Cic.

497. Qvo.—Quo, by which, that, is sometimes used for ut, especially with comparatives:

Mědico dăre quo sit stúdiosior, to give to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic.

For non quo of Cause, see 520. 3.

- 498. Quin.—Quin (quî and ne), by which not, that not, is often used to introduce a Purpose or Result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative. Thus
 - 1. Quin is often used in the ordinary sense of ne and ut non:

Rětineri non pötěrant, quin těla conjicérent, They could not be restrained from hurling (that they might not) their weapons. Caes. Nihil est tam difficile quin (ut non) investigāri possit, Nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.

After verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like, quin has the force of ne.

2. Quin is often used after Nemo, Nullus, Nihil, Quis?

Adest nëmo, quin videat, There is no one present who does not see. Cic. Quis est quin cernat, Who is there who does not perceive? Cic.

Is or id is sometimes expressed after quin:

Nihil est quin id intereat, There is nothing which does not perish. Cic.

3. Quin is often used in the sense of that, but that, without with a participial noun, especially after negative expressions, implying doubt, uncertainty, omission, and the like:

Non est dubium quin beneficium sit, There is no doubt that it is a benefit. Sen. Nullum intermisi diem quin aliquid darem, I allowed no day to

pass, without giving something. Cic. Făcere non possum quin litteras mittam, I cannot but send a letter. Cic.

- 1) Such expressions are: non dubito, non dubium est—non multum übest, paulum übest, nihil übest, quid übest?—non, vix, aegre abstineo; mihi non tempĕro; non, nihil praetermitto—fücĕre non possum, fiĕri non pötest.
 - 2) The Infinitive, for Quin with the Subjunctive, occurs with verbs of doubting; Quis dubitat patere Europam, Who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt.
 - 3) Non Quin of Cause. See 520. 3.
- 4) Quin is used in questions in the sense of why not? and with the Imperative in the sense of well, but: Quin agite, but come. Virg. It occasionally means nay, even, rather.
- 499. Quominus.—Quōminus (quo and minus), that thus the less, that not, is sometimes used for ne and ut non, after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like:

Non deterret săpientem mors quominus reipublicae consulat, Death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic. Non recusavit, quominus poenam subiret, He did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep. Per cum stetit quominus dimicaretur, It was owing to him (stood through him), that the engagement was not made. Caes.

- Expressions of hindering, etc., are: deterreo, impédio, prohibeo,—obsto, obsisto, officio,—récuso, per me stat, etc.
- Verbs of hindering admit a variety of constructions: the Infinitive, the Subjunctive with ut, ne, quo, quin, or quominus.

Relative of Purpose or Result.

500. A Relative Clause denoting a Purpose or a Result is equivalent to a clause with ut, denoting purpose or result, and takes the Subjunctive for the same reason. The relative is then equivalent to ut with a pronoun: qui = ut ϵgo , ut tu, ut is, etc.:

Purfose.—Missi sunt qui (ut ii) consultrent Apollinem, They were sent to consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missi sunt delecti qui Thermopylas occuparent, Picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylae. Nep.

Result.—Non is sum qui $(=nt\ ego)$ his $"utar, I\ am\ not\ such\ a\ one\ as\ to\ use\ these\ things.$ Cic. Inn $"ocentia\ est\ affectio\ tallis\ "unmi, quae\ (=ut\ ea)\ n"ocent\ n"emini,\ Innocence\ is\ such\ a\ state\ of\ mind\ as\ injures\ no\ one,\ or\ as\ to\ injure\ no\ one.$ Cic.

1. RELATIVE PARTICLES.—The subjunctive is used in the same way in clauses introduced by relative particles; abi, unde, etc.:

Domum ubi habitaret, legit, He selected a house that he might dwell in it (where he might dwell). Cic.

- 2. Purpose and Result.—Relative clauses denoting purpose are readily recognized; those denoting result are used, in their more obvious applications, after such words as tam, so; tālis, is, ejusmódi, such, as in the above examples; but see also 501.
- 3. Indicative after Talis, etc.—In a relative clause after talis, is, etc., the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact:

Mihi causa tālis oblāta est, in qua örātio deesse nēmini pŏtest, Such a cause has been offered me, (one) in which no one can fail of an oration. Cic.

- 501. Relative clauses of Result, in their less obvious applications, include,
- I. Relative clauses after *Indefinite* and *General antecedents*. Here *tam*, *tālis*, or some such word, may often be supplied:

Nunc dicis ăliquid (ejusmödi, or tāle) quod ad rem pertineat, Now you state something which belongs to the subject (i. e., something of such a character as to belong, etc.). Cic. Sunt qui pătent, there are some who think. Cic. Nemo est qui non cupiat, there is no one who does not desire, i. e., such as not to desire. Cic.

1. In the same way quod, or a relative particle, ûbi, unde, quo, cur, ctc., with the Subjunctive, is used after est, there is reason, non est, nihil est, there is no reason, quid est, what reason is there? non habeo, nihil habeo, I have no reason:

Est quod gaudeas, There is reason why you should rejoice, or so that you may. Plant. Non est quod crèdas, There is no reason why you should believe. Sen. . Nihil hàbeo, quod incûsem sènectûtem, I have no reason why I should accuse old age. Cie.

2. INDICATIVE AFTER INDEFINITE ANTECEDENT.—A Relative clause after an indefinite antecedent also takes the Indicative, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:

Sunt qui non audent diere, There are some who (actually) do not dare to speak. Cic. Multa sunt, quae dici possunt, There are many things which may be said. Cic. So also clauses with Rel. particles. See 1 above.

In poetry and late prose the Indicative often follows sunt qui:

Sunt quos juvat, there are some whom it delights. Hor.

- 3. RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES with quod, as quod sciam, as far as I know; quod mēminērim, as far as I remember, etc., take the subjunctive.
- II. Relative clauses after *Unus*, *Sölus*, and the like, take the subjunctive:

Săpientia est una, quae moestitiam pellat, Wisdom is the only thing which dispels sadness (such as to dispel). Cic. Soli centum erant qui creari possent, There were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.

III. Relative clauses after *Dignus*, *Indignus*, *Idöneus*, and *Aptus* take the subjunctive:

Fübülae dignae sunt, quae légantur, The fables are worthy to be read (that they should be read). Cie. Rüfum Caesar idöneum jüdicüverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caes.

IV. Relative clauses after Comparatives with Quam take the subjunctive:

Damna majūra sunt quam quae (=ut ea) aestimāri possint, The losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

IV. SUBJUNCTIVE OF CONDITION.

502. Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood,—the *Condition* and the *Conclusion*:

Si negem, mentiar, If I should deny it, I should speak falsely. Cic. Here si negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion.

RULE XLI.—Subjunctive of Condition.

503. The Subjunctive of Condition is used,

I. With dum, modo, dummodo:

Mănent ingenia, modo permăneat industria, Mental powers remain, if only industry remains. Cic.

II. With ac si, ut si, quăsi, quam si, tanquam, tanquam si, vělut, vělut si:

Crādēlitātem, vēlut si ădesset, horrēbant, They shuddered at his cruelty, as if he were present. Caes.

III. Sometimes with si, nisi, ni, sin, qui = si is, si quis:

Dies defieiat, si vělim nůměrāre, The day would fail me, if I should wish to recount. Cic. Improbe feceris, nisi monueris, You would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic. Si voluisset, dimicasset, If he had wished, he would have fought. Nep.

1. SI OMITTED.—Two clauses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Něgat quis, něgo, Does any one deny, I deny. Ter. Roges me, nihil respondeam, Should you ask me, I should make no reply. Cic. See also Imperative, 535. 2.

- 2. CONDITION SUPPLIED .- The condition may be supplied,
- 1) By Participles: Non pŏtestis, vŏluptāte omnia dīrīgentes (si dīrīgĕtis), rĕtĭnēre virtūtem, You cannot rctain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cic.
- 2) By Oblique Cases: Nemo sine spe (nisi spem haberet) se offerret ad mortem, No one without a hope (if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death. Cic.

3. IRONY.—The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with nisi vēro, nisi forte with the Indicative, and with quăsi, quăsi vēro with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte insanit, unless perhaps he is insane. Cic. Quasi vero necesse

sit, as if indeed it were necessary. Caes.

4. ITA-SI, ETC.—Ita-si, so-if, means only-if. Si quidem, if indeed, sometimes has nearly the force of since.

5. ET OMITTED .- See 587. I. 6.

- 504. Force of Tenses.—In conditional sentences the Present and Perfect tenses represent the supposition as not at all improbable, the Imperfect and Pluperfect represent it as contrary to the fact. See examples above. See also 476 to 478.
- 1. Present for Imperfect.—The Present Subjunctive is sometimes used for the Imperfect, when a condition, in itself contrary to reality, is still conceived of as possible:

Tu si hic sis, aliter sentias, If you were the one (or, should be), you would

think differently. Ter.

2. IMPERFECT FOR PLUPERFECT.—The Imperfect Subjunctive is sometimes used for the Pluperfect, with the nice distinction that it contemplates the supposed action as *going on*, not as completed:

Num Opīmium, si tum esses, těměrārium cīvem půtāres? Would you think Opimius an audacious citizen, if you were living at that time (Pluperf.

would you have thought-if you had lived)? Cic.

505. Dum, Mödo, Dummödo.—Dum, mödo, and dummödo, in conditions, have the force of—if only, provided that, or with ne, if only not, provided that not:

Dum res măneant, verba fingant, Let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cic. Mŏdo permăneat industria, if only industry remains. Cic. Dummŏdo repellat periculum, provided he may avert danger. Cic. Mŏdo ne laudārent, if only they did not praise. Cic.

When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the indicative:

Dum leges vigebant, while the laws were in force. Cic.

506. Ac si, Ut si, Quăsi, etc.—Ac si, ut si, quam si, quăsi, tanquam, tanquam si, velut, velut si, involve an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Miserior es, quam si oculos non haberes, You are more unhappy than (esses, you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic. Crūdelītātem, vēlut si adesset, horrēbant, They shuddered at his cruelty as (they would) if he were present. Caes. Ut si in suam rem aliena convertant, as if they should appropriate others' possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they may hear. Sen.

Ceu and Sīcuti are sometimes used in the same way:

Ceu bella forent, as if there were wars. Virg. Sicuti audiri possent, as if they could be heard. Sall.

- 507. SI, Nisi, NI, SIN, QUI.—The Latin distinguishes three distinct forms of the conditional sentence with si, nisi, ni, sin:
 - I. Indicative in both Clauses.
 - II. Subjunctive, Present or Perfect, in both Clauses.
 - III. Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both Clauses.
- 508. First Form.—Indicative in both Clauses.—This form assumes the supposed case as real, basing upon it any statement which would be admissible, if it were a known fact:

Si hace cīvītas est, cīvīs sum čgo, If this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Si non līcēbat, non něcesse črat, If it was not lawful, it was not necessary. Cic. Dělorem si non pětěro frangěre, occultābo, If I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, I will conceal it. Cic. Parvi sunt főris arma, nīsi est consīlium dòmi, Arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic.

- 1. Condition.—The condition is introduced, when affirmative, by si, with or without other particles, as quidem, modo, etc., and when negative, by si non, nisi, ni. The time may be either present, past, or future. See examples above.
 - 2. Concursion.—The conclusion may take the form of a command: Si peccāvi, ignosee, If I have erred, pardon me. Cic.
- 3. SI NON, NISI.—Si non and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly si non introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exception. Thus in the second example above the meaning is, If it was not lawful, it follows that it was not necessary, while in the fourth the meaning is, Arms are of little value abroad, except when there is wisdom at home.
- 509. Second Form.—Subjunctive Present or Perfect in both Clauses.—This form assumes the condition as possible:

Haec si tecum patria lŏquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat, If your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cic. Improbe feceris, nīsi monueris, You would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic. See also examples under the Rule, 503; also 486. 7.

When dependent upon a Historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Pluperfect, by the law for Sequence of tenses (480).

Mětuit ne, si īret, retrăhěrētur, He feared lest if he should go, he might be brought back. Liv.

510. Third Form.—Subjunctive Imperfect or Pluperfect in both Clauses.—This form assumes the supposed case as contrary to the reality, and simply states what would have been the result, if the condition had been fulfilled:

Săpientia non expeteretur, si nihil efficeret, Wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing. Cic. Si optima tenere possemus, haud sane consilio egeremus, If we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed need counsel. Cic. Si voluisset, dimicasset, If he had wished, he would have fought. Nep. Nunquam ăbisset, nisi sibi viam munivisset, He would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way. Cic. See also 486. 7.

1. Here the *Imperfect* relates to Present time, as in the first and second examples: the *Pluperfect* to Past time, as in the third and fourth examples.

2. In the Periphrastic forms in rus and dus and in expressions of Duty, Necessity, and Ability, the Perfect and Imperfect Indicative sometimes occur in the conclusion.

Quid futurum fuit, si plebs ăgitări coepta esset, What would have been the result, if the plebeians had begun to be agitated? Liv. See also 512. 2.

1) When the context, irrespective of the condition, requires the Subjunctive, the tense remains unchanged without reference to the tense of the principal vcrb:

Adeo est inòpia coactus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam répétiturus fuèrit, He was so pressed by want that if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul. Liv.

Here répétiturus fuérit is in the Subj. not because it is in a conditional sentence, but because it is the Subj. of Result with ut; but it is in the Perfect, because, it it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

- 511. MIXED FORMS.—The Latin sometimes unites a condition belonging to one of the three regular forms with a conclusion belonging to another, thus producing certain Mixed Forms.
- I. The Indicative sometimes occurs in the Condition with the Subjunctive in the Conclusion, but here the Subjunctive is generally dependent not upon the condition, but upon the very nature of the thought:

Pěream, si pětěrunt, May I perish (subj. of desire, 487), if they shall be able. Cic. Quid timeam, si beātus fütürus sum, Why should I jear (486. II.), if I am to be happy? Cič.

II. The Subjunctive sometimes occurs in the Condition with the Indicative in the Conclusion. Here the Indicative often gives the effect of reality to the conclusion, even though in fact dependent upon contingencies; but see also 512:

Dies deficiet, si vėlim causam defendėre, The day would (will) fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause. Cic. Vīcērāmus nīsi rēcēpisset Antonium, We had conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic.

1. The Future Indicative is often thus used in consequence of its near relationship in force to the Subjunctive, as whatever is Future is more or less contingent. See first example.

 The Historical tenses, especially the Pluperfect, are sometimes used, for effect, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so, as in the last example.

3. Conditional sentences made up partly of the second form (509) and partly of the third are rare.

- 512. Subjunctive and Indicative.—The combination of the Subjunctive in the Condition with the Indicative in the Conclusion is often only apparent. Thus
- 1. When the truth of the conclusion is not in reality affected by the condition, as when si has the force of $even\ if$, although:

Si hoe plăceat, tămen võlunt, Even if (although) this pleases them, they still wish. Cic.

- ²2. When that which stands as the conclusion is such only in appearance, the real conclusion being understood. This occurs
 - 1) With the Indicative of Dibco, Possum, and the like:

Quem, si ulla in te piètas esset, colère debebas, Whom you ought to have honored (and would have honored), if there were any filial affection in you. Cic. Deleri exercitus potuit, si persocuti victores essent, The army might have been destroyed (and would have been), if the victors had pursued. Liv.

2) With the Imperfect and Perfect Indicative of other verbs, especially if in a periphrastic conjugation or accompanied by Paene or $Pr\check{o}pe$:

Rělictūri agros črant, nīsi littčras mīsisset, They were about to leave their lands (and would have done so), had he not sent a letter. Cic. Pons iter paene hostibus dědit, ni ūnus vir fuisset, The bridge almost furnished a passage to the enemy (and would have done so), had there not been one man. Liv.

513. Relative involving Condition.—The relative takes the subjunctive when it is equivalent to *si* or *dum* with the subjunctive:

Errat longe, qui crēdat, etc., He greatly errs who supposes, etc., i. e., if or provided any one supposes, he greatly errs. Ter. Haee qui videat, cōgātur, If any one should see these things, he would be compelled. Cic.

V. Subjunctive in Concessions.

514. A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits something, generally introduced in English by though or although:

Quamquam intelligunt, though they understand. Cic.

RULE XLII.-Subjunctive of Concession.

515. The Subjunctive of Concession is used,

I. With licet, quamvis, quantumvis,—ut, ne, quum, although:

Licet irrideat, plus tămen rătio vălūbit, Though he may deride, reason will yet avail more. Cic. Ut desint vires, tămen est laudanda voluntas, Though the strength fails, still the will should be approved. Ovid.

II. With qui = quum (licet) is, quum ego, etc., though he:

Absolvite Verrem, qui (quum is) se făteâtur pecunias sepisse, Acquit Verres, though he confesses (who may confess) that he has accepted money. Cic.

III. Generally with etsi, tămetsi, ĕtiamsi:

Quod sentiunt, etsi optimum sit, tämen non audent dieere, They dð not dare to state what they think, even if (though) it be most excellent. Cic.

- 516. Concessive Clauses may be divided into three classes:
- I. Concessive Clauses with quamquam in the best prose generally take the Indicative:

Quamquam intelligunt, tămen nunquam dicunt, Though they understand, they never speak. Cic.

 The Subjunctive may of course follow quanquam, whenever the thought itself, irrespective of the concessive character of the clause, requires that mood (455).

2. The Subjunctive, even in the best prose, sometimes occurs with quamquam where we should expect the Indicative: Quamquam ne id quidem suspicionem habutirit, Though not even that gave rise to any suspicion. Cic.

3. In poetry and some of the later prose, the subjunctive with quamquam is not

uncommon. In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction.

4. Quamquam and etsi sometimes have the force of yet, but yet, and yet: Quamquam quid lóquor, And yet what do I say? Cic.

II. Concessive Clauses with *licet*, quamvis, quantumvis, —ut, ne, quum, although;—qui = quum (or *licet*) is, ego, tu, etc., take the Subjunctive:

Non tu possis, quantumvis excellas, You would not be able, however much (although) you excel. Cic. Ne sit summum malum dolor, malum certe est, Though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil. Cic. Sec 518.

I. Ut and NE.—This concessive use of ut and ne may readily be explained by supplying some verb like fac or sine: thus, ut disint vires (515. I.) = fac or sine ut desint vires, make or grant that strength fails. See 489.

The Concessive Particle is sometimes omitted:

Sed habeat, tamen, But grant that it has it, yet. Cic.

UT—sic or ita, as—so, though—yet, does not require the subjunctive.

2. QUANTUS AND QUANTUMVIS.—These are strictly adverbs, in the sense of however much, but they generally give to the clause the force of a concession. When used with their simple adverbial force to qualify adjectives, they do not affect the mood of the clause: quamvis multi, however many.

3. Mood with Quanvis.—In Cicero and the best prose, quanvis takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in the poets and later prose writers it often admits the Indicative:

Erat dignitāte rēgia, quamvis cārēbat nomine, He was of royal dignity,

though he was without the name. Nep.

- 4. Relative in Concessions.—The relative denoting concession is equivalent to *licet*, or *quum*, in the sense of *though*, with a Demonstrative or Personal pronoun, and takes the Subjunctive for the same reason: qui = lieet (quum) is, liect ego, tu, etc. See examples under the Rule, 515.
- III. Concessive Clauses with the compounds of si: etsi, *tiamsi, tămetsi in the use of Moods and Tenses conform to the rule for conditional clauses with si:

Etsi nihil håbeat in se glöria, tämen virtütem sequitur, Though glory may not possess anything in itself, yet it follows virtue. Cic. Etiamsi mors oppstenda esset, even if death ought to be met. Cic.

VI. SUBJUNCTIVE OF CAUSE AND TIME.

RULE XLIII.—Subjunctive of Cause.

517. The Subjunctive of Cause or Reason is used,

I. With quum (eum), since; qui = quum is, etc.:

Quum vīta mětus plēna sit, since life is full of fear. Cic. Quae quum ĭta sint, perge, Since these things are so, proceed. Cic. O vis vērītātis, quae (quum ea) se dēfendat, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cic.

II. With quod, quia, quomiam, quando, to introduce a reason on another's authority:

Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventutem, Socrates was accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint.

Causal Clauses with Quum and Qui.

518. Quum.—Quum takes the Subjunctive when it denotes,

I. Cause or Concession:

Quum sint in nöbis rătio, prūdentia, since there is in us reason and prudence. Cic. Phōcion fuit pauper, quum dīvītissīmus esse posset, Phocion was poor, though he might have been very rich. Nep. See also 515.

II. Time with the accessory notion of Cause or Concession:

Quum dimicaret, occisus est, When he engaged battle, he was slain. Nep. Zēnonem, quum Athēnis essem, audiebam fréquenter, I often heard Zeno, when I was at Athens. Cic.

1. Quen in Narration.—Quum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is very frequent in narration even in temporal clauses. See examples under II. above.

This use of *Quum* with the Subjunctive may in most instances be readily explained by the fact that it involves *Cause* as well as *Time*. Thus *quum dimicāret*, in the first example, not only states the *time* of the action—occious est, but also its cause or occasion: the engagement was the occasion of his death. So with *quum essem*, as presence in Athens was an indispensable condition of hearing Zeno. But in some instances the notion of *Cause* or *Concession* is not at all apparent.

2. QUUM WITH TEMPUS, ETC.—Quum with the Subjunctive is sometimes used to characterize a period:

Id saeculum quum plena Graecia poetärum esset, that age when (such that) Greece was full of poets. Cic. Erit tempus, quum desiléres, the time will come, when you will desire. Cic. So without tempus, etc.: Fuit quum arbitrarer, there was (a time) when I thought. Cic.

3. QUUM WITH INDICATIVE. — Quum denoting time merely, with perhaps

a few exceptions in narration, takes the Indicative:

Quum quiescunt, probant, While they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Pāruit, quum necesse erat, He obeyed when it was necessary. Cic.

- 519. Qui, Cause or Reason.—A Relative clause denoting cause or reason, is equivalent to a Causal clause with Quum, and takes the Subjunctive for the same reason:
- O fortūnāte ădolescens, qui (quum tu) tuae virtūtis Homērum praecūnem invēnēris, O fortunate youth, since you (lit. who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your valor. Cic.
- 1. Equivalents.—In such clauses, qui is equivalent to quum égo, quum tu, quum is, etc.
- 2. Indicative.—When the statement is to be viewed as a fact rather than as a reason, the Indicative is used:

Hăbeo sĕnectūti grātiam, quae mihi sermūnis ăvidĭtūtem auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cic.

3. Qui with Conjunctions.—When a conjunction accompanies the relative, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus,

1) The Subjunctive is generally used with quum, quippe, ut, utpote:

Quae quum Ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandiütur, since he flatters. Cic. Ut qui coloni essent, since they were colonists. Cic.

But the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact.

2) The Indicative is generally used with quia, quoniam:

Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things cannot be sure. Cic. Qui quoniam intelligi noluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

Causal Clauses with Quod, Quia, Quoniam, Quando.

520. Quod, quia, quoniam, and quando generally take,

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively on one's own authority:

Quŏniam supplicatio decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cie. Gaude quod spectant te, Rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Aristides nonne expulsus est patria, quod justus esset, Was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? Cic.

1. Quod with Dico, etc.— $D\bar{i}co$ and $p\bar{u}to$ are often in the Subjunctive instead of the verb depending upon them:

Quod se bellum gestüros dicerent = quod bellum gestüri essent, ut dicebant, because they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.

2. Clauses with Quod Unconnected. See 554. IV.

3. Non Quo, etc.—Non quo, non quod, non quin, rarely non quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote that something was not the true reason:

Non quo hăberem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write. Cic. Non quod doleant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia nequiverat quam quod ignoraret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know. Liv.

4. POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE. See 485 and 486.

RULE XLIV.-Time with Cause.

- 521. The Subjunctive of Time with the accessory notion of Cause or Purpose is used,
 - I. With dum, donec, quoad, until:

Exspectas dum dīcat, You are waiting till he speaks, i. e., that he may speak. Cic. Ea continēbis quoad te videam, You will keep them till I see you. Cic.

II. With antequam, priusquam, before, before that:

Antěquam de re půblica dicam, expônam consilium, I will set forth my plan before I (can) speak of the republic, i. e., preparatory to speaking of the republic. Cie. Priusquam incipias, before you begin. Sall.

1. Explanation.—Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time: dum dicat is nearly equivalent to ut dicat, which is also often used after exspecto. Antéquam dicam is nearly equivalent to ut postea dicam: I will set forth my views, that I may afterwards speak of the republic.

2. WITH OTHER CONJUNCTIONS.—The Subjunctive may of course be used in any temporal clause, when the thought, irrespective of the temporal particle, requires that mood; see 486. HI.

Ubi res posceret, whenever the case might require. Liv.

522. Dum, Donec, and Quoad take

I. The *Indicative*,—(1) in the sense of *while*, as long as, and (2) in the sense of *until*, if the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Dum leges vigebant, as long as the laws were in force. Cic. Quoad renuntiatum est, until it was (actually) announced. Nep.

II. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed not so much as a fact as something desired or proposed:

Different, dum defervescat Ira, Let them defer it, till their anger cools, i. e., that it may cool. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

1. Donec, in Tacitus, generally takes the Subjunctive:

Rhēnus servat viŏlentiam cursus, donec Oceăno misceātur, The Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current, till it mingles with the ocean. Tac.

2. Donec, in Livy, occurs with the Subjunctive even in the sense of while, but with the accessory notion of cause:

Nibil trepădābant donec ponte ăgerentur, They did not fear at all while (and because) they were driven on the bridge. Liv.

523. Antequam and Priusquam generally take,

I. The *Indicative*, when they denote mere priority of time:

Priusquam lūcet, adsunt, They are present before it is light. Cic. Antequam in Sīcīliam vēni, before I came into Sīcīly. Cic.

- II. The *Subjunctive*, when they denote a dependence of one event upon another. Thus,
- 1. In any Tense , when the accessory notion of $\mathit{purpose}$ or cause is involved:

Priusquam incipias, consulto opus est, Defore you begin there is need of deliberation, i. e., as preparatory to your beginning. Sall. Tempestas minātur, antequam surgat, The tempest threatens, before it rises, i. e., the threatening of the tempest naturally precedes its rising. Sen.

2. In the Imperfect and Pluperfect, as the regular construction in narration, because the one event is generally treated as the occasion or natural antecedent of the other. See also 471.4.

Antequam urbem căperent, before they took the city. Liv. Priusquam de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Măcedoniam perrexi, Beforethey were able to hear of my approach, I went into Macedonia. Cic.

3. Prīdie quam takes the same moods as Priusquam.

1) Indicative or Subjunctive.—With antiquam and priusquam, the Indicative and Subjunctive are sometimes used without any apparent difference of meaning, but the Subjunctive probably denotes a closer connection between the two events:

Ante de incommodis dīco, pauca dīcenda, Before I (actually) speak of disadvantages, a few things should be mentioned. Cic. Antequam de re pūblica dīcam, exponam consilium, Before I speak of the republic, I will set forth my plan. Cic.

2) ANTE-QUAM, PRIUS-QUAM.—The two parts of which antéquam, priusquam, and postquam are compounded are often separated, so that ante, prius, or post stands in the principal clause and quam in the subordinate clause:

Paucis ante dicbus, quam Syrücüsae căperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken. Liv. See Tmesis, 704. IV. 3.

VII. SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

524. A clause which involves a question without directly asking it, is called an indirect or dependent question.

RULE XLV.-Indirect Questions.

525. The Subjunctive is used in Indirect Questions:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quaeritur, cur doctissimi homines dissentiant, It is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic. Quaesieras, nonne putarem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Qualis sit animus, animus neseit, The soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

1. WITH INTERROGATIVES.—Indirect or Dependent questions, like those not dependent, are introduced by interrogative words: quid, cur, nonne, quālis, etc.; rarely by si, sīve, seu, whether; ut, how. See examples above.

2. Substantive Force.—Indirect questions are used substantively, and generally, though not always, supply the place of subjects or objects of verbs. But an Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes inserted after the leading verb.

Ego illum nescio qui fuerit, I do not know (him), who he was. Ter.

3. Direct and Indirect.—An indirect question may be readily changed to a direct or independent question.

Thus the direct question involved in the first example is: Quid dies fëret, What will a day bring forth? So in the second: Cur doctissimi homines dissentiunt, Why do the most learned men disagree?

4. Subjunctive Omitted.—After nescio quis, I know not who = quidam, some one; nescio quōmōdo, I know not how, etc., as also after mīrum quantum, it is wonderful how much = wonderfully much, very much, there is an ellipsis of the Subjunctive:

Nescio quid ănimus praesagit, The mind forebodes, I know not what (it forebodes, praesagiat, understood). Ter. Id mīrum quantum profiuit, This profited, it is wonderful how much, i. e., it wonderfully profited. Liv.

5. Indirect Questions Distinguished.—Indirect Questions must be care-

fully distinguished from certain similar forms. Thus,

1) From Relative Clauses.—Clauses introduced by Relative Pronouns or Relative Adverbs always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while Indirect Questions are generally so used:

Dicam quod sentio (rel. clause), I will tell that which (id quod) I think. Cic. Dicam quid intelligam (indirect question), I will tell what I know. Cic. Quaeramus ubi măleficium est, Let us seck there (ibi) where the crime is. Cic.

In the first and third examples, quod sentio and ŭbi-est are not questions, but relative clauses; id is understood as the antecedent of quod, and ibi as the antecedent or correlative of ubi; but in the second example, quid intelligam is an indirect question and the object of dicam: I will tell (what?) what I know, i. c., will answer that question.

2) From Direct Questions and Exclamations:

Quid agendum est? Nescio, What is to be done? I know not. Cic. Vide! quam conversa res est, See! how changed is the case. Cic.

6. Indicative in Indirect Questions.—The Indicative in Indirect Questions is sometimes used in the poets; especially in Plautus and Terence:

Si měmorāre vělim, quam fideli animo fui, possum, If I wish to mention how much fidelity I showed, I am able. Ter.

- 7. Questions in the Oratio Obliqua. See 530, II. 2.
- 526. Single and Double Questions.—Indirect questions, like those which are direct (346. II.), may be either single or double.
- I. An Indirect Single Question is generally introduced by some interrogative word-either a pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the particles ne, nonne, num. Here num does not imply negation:

Rogitat qui vir esset (481. IV.), He asked who he was. Liv. Epămiuondas quaesīvit, salvusne esset clipcus, Epaminondas inquired whether his shield was safe. Cic. Dubito num debeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin: See also the examples under the Rule, 525.

- II. An Indirect Double Question (whether—or) admits of two constructions:
- 1. It generally takes utrum or ne in the first member, and an in the second:

Quaeritur, virtus suamne propter dignitatem, an propter fructus aliquos expětatur, It is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantages. Cic.

2. But sometimes it omits the particle in the first member, and takes an or ne in the second. Other forms are rare:

Quaeritur, natūra an doctrīna possit effici virtus, It is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature or by education, Cic. See also \$16.1.1).

1) In the second member, necne, sometimes an non, is used in the sense of or not: Săpientia beatos efficiat necne, quaestio est, Whether or not wisdom makes men happy, is a question. Cic.

2) An, in the sense of whether not, implying an affirmative, is used after verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dubito an, nescio an, haud scio an, I doubt whether not, I know not whether not = I am inclined to think; dubium est an, incertum est an, it is uncertain whether not = it is probable:

Důbito an Thrásýbūlum prīmum omnium ponam, I doubt whether I should not

place Thrasybulus first of all, i. e., I am inclined to think I should. Nep.

3) An sometimes has the force of aut, perhaps by the omission of incertum est, as used above:

Simonides an quis ălius, Simonides or some other one. Cic.

VIII. SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

RULE XLVI.—Attraction.

527. The Subjunctive by Attraction is often used in clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive:

Věreor, ne, dum mĭnuĕre vělim lăbōrem, augeam, I fear I shall increase the labor, while I wish to diminish it. Cic. Tempus est hujusmodi, ut, ŭbi quisque sit, ĭbi esse mĭnĭme vělit, The time is of such a character that every one wishes to be least of all where he is. Cic. Mos est, ut dicat sententiam, qui vělit, The custom is that he who wishes expresses his opinion. Cic.

1. Application.—This rule is applicable to clauses introduced by conjunctions, adverbs, or relatives. Thus, in the examples, the clauses introduced by dum, ubi, and qui, take the subjunctive, because they are dependent upon clauses which have the subjunctive.

2. Indicative or Subjunctive.—Such clauses generally take.

1) The Indicative, when they are in a measure parenthetical or give spe-

cial prominence to the fact stated:

Mīlites mīsit, ut eos qui fūgerant persequerentur, He sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled, i. c., the fugitives. Caes. Tanta vis probitatis est, ut eam, vel in iis quos nunquam vīdimus, dīligāmus, Such is the force of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cic.

The Indicative with dum is very common, especially in the poets and historians: Fuere qui, dum dubitat Scaevinus, hortarentur Pisonem, There were those who exhorted Piso, while Scaevinus hesitated. Tac. See also 467. 4.

- 2) The Subjunctive, when the clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples under the rule.
- 3. After Infinitive Clauses.—The principle just stated (2) applies also to the use of Moods in clauses dependent upon the Infinitive. This

often explains the Subjunctive in a condition belonging to an Infinitive, especially with non possum:

Nec bonitas esse potest, si non per se expétatur, Nor can goodness exist (= it is not possible that), if it is not sought for itself. Cic.

But clauses dependent upon the Infinitive are found most frequently in the Oratio Obliqua and are accordingly provided for by 529.

IX. Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse,— Oratio Obliqua.

528. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse—Oratio Obliqua:

Plătōnem ferunt in Ităliam vēnisse, They say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Respondeo te dölōrem ferre mŏderāte, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic. Utilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful. Cic.

- 1. Direct and Indirect.—In distinction from the Indirect Discourse— Oratio Obliqua, the original words of the author are said to be in the Direct Discourse—Oratio Recta. Thus in the first example, Platonem in Italiam vēnisse is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i. e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: Plato in Italiam vēnit.
- 2. Quotation.—Words quoted without change belong of course to the Direct Discourse:

Rex "duumviros" inquit "secundum legem făcio," The king said, "I appoint duumvirs according to law." Liv.

RULE XLVII.—Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse.

529. The Subjunctive is generally used in the Interrogative, Imperative, and Subordinate clauses of the Oratio Oblīqua:

Ad postălăta Caesăris respondit, cur věnīret (direct: cur věnīs?), To the demands of Caesar he replied, why did he come. Caes. Scribit Lăbiëno cum lěgione věniat (direct: cum lěgione věni), He writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion. Caes. Hippias gloriātus est. annălum quem hăbēret (direct: hăbeo) se sua mănu confēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore. Cic.

Note.—For convenience of reference the following outline of the use of Moods, Tenses, Pronouns, etc. in the Oratio Obliqua is here inserted.

530. Moods in Principal Clauses.—The Principal clauses of the Direct discourse, on becoming Indirect, undergo the following changes of Mood:

I. When Declarative, they take the Infinitive (551):

Dīcēbat žnīmos esse dīvīnos (direct: ănīmi sunt dīvīni), He was wont to say that souls were divine. Cic. Plătônem Tărentum vēnisse rěpěrio (Plāto Tărentum vēnit), I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Căto mīrāri se (mīror) ālēbat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Cic.

- II. When Interrogative or Imperative, they generally take the Subjunctive according to Rule XLVII.
- 1. Verb Omitted.—The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Pýthia praccépit ut Miltiädem impěrätörem sůměrent; incepta prospěra fútūra, Pythia commanded that they should take Miltiades as their commander, (telling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.

2. Referenced Questions.—Questions which are such only in form, requiring no answer, are generally construed, according to sense, in the Infinitive. They are sometimes called Rhetorical questions, as they are often used for Rhetorical effect instead of assertions: thus num possit, can

he? for non potest, he can not; quid sit turpius, what is more base? for nihil est turpius, nothing is more base.

Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or third person:

Respondit num měmŏriam dēpōněre posse, He replied, could he lay aside the recollection. Caes. Here the direct question would be: Num měmŏriam dēpōněre possim?

- 3. Imperative Clauses with the Infinitive. Sec 551. II. 1.
- 531. Moods in Subordinate Clauses.—The Subordinate clauses of the Direct discourse, on becoming Indirect, put their finite verbs in the Subjunctive:

Orābant, ut sībi auxīlium ferret quod prēmērentur (direct: nōbis auxīlium fer, quod prēmīmur), They prayed that he would bring them help, because they were oppressed. Caes.

1. Infinitive in Relative Clauses.—It must be remembered (453), that Relative clauses, though subordinate in form, sometimes have the force of Principal clauses. When thus used in the Oratio Obliqua, they may be construed with the Infinitive:

Ad eum defertur, esse civem Romanum qui quoreretur: quem (= et eum) asservatum esse, It was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard. Cic. So also comparisons: Te suspicor iisdem, quibus me ipsum, commoveri, Isuspect that you are moved by the same things as I am. Cic.

2. Infinitive AFTER CERTAIN CONJUNCTIONS.—The Infinitive occurs, especially in Livy and Tacitus, even in clauses after quia, quum, quamquam, and some other conjunctions:

Dicit, se moenibus inclūsos těněre eos; quia per agros văgāri, He says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 551. I. 5 and 6.

3. Indicative in Parenthetical Clauses.—Clauses may be introduced parenthetically in the oratio obliqua without strictly forming a part of it, and may accordingly take the Indicative:

Rěférunt silvam esse, quae appellätur Băcēnis, They report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis. Caes.

4. Indicative in Clauses not Parenthetical.—Sometimes clauses not parenthetical take the Indicative to give prominence to the *fact* stated. This occurs most frequently in Relative clauses:

Certior factus est ex ea parte vici, quam Gallis concesserat, omnes discessisse, He was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls. Caes.

- 532. Tenses.—Tenses in the Oratio Obliqua generally conform to the ordinary rules for Infinitive and Subjunctive Tenses (480, 540), but the law of Sequence of Tenses admits of certain qualifications:
- 1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after a Historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, si obsides sibi dentur, sese pacem esse facturum, Caesar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes.

- 2. In Conditional sentences of the third form (510),
- The condition retains the Imperfect or Pluperfect without reference to the tense of the Principal verb;
- 2) The Conclusion changes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive into the Periphrastic Infinitives in rus esse and rus fuisse:

Censes Pompēium laetātūrum fuisse, si scīret, Do you think Pompey would have rejoiced, if he had known? Cic. Clāmĭtābat, si ille ādesset, ventūros esse, He cried out that they would come, if he were present. Caes.

But the Regular Infinitive, instead of the periphrastic forms, sometimes occurs in this construction, especially in expressions of Duty, etc. (475, 4).

3. Conditional Sentences of the second form (509), after Historical tenses, sometimes retain in their conditional clauses the Present or Perfect and sometimes change it to the Imperfect or Pluperfect, according to the Rule for Sequence of Tenses (480):

Respondit, si experīri vēlint, părātum esse, He replied, if they wished to make the trial he was ready. Caes. Lēgātos mittit, si Ita fēcisset, āmīcītiam fūtūram, He sent messengers saying that, if he would do thus, there would be friendship. Caes.

Here mittit is the Historical Present. See 467. III.

4. The Future Perfect in a Subordinate clause of the Direct discourse is changed in the Indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a Principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after a Historical tense:

Agunt ut dīmīcent; ĭbi impĕrium fŏre, uude victūria fuĕrit, They arrange that they shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory may have been). Liv. Appārēbat regnātūrum, qui vīcisset, It was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

533. Pronouns, Adverbs, etc.—Pronouns and adverbs, as also the persons of the verbs, are often changed in passing from the *Direct* discourse to the *Indirect*:

Glöriātus est annūlum se sua mănu confēcisse (direct: annūlum ego mea mănu confēci), He boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic.

- 1. Pronouns of first and second persons are often changed to the third. Thus above ϵgo in the direct discourse becomes ϵe , and mea becomes ϵua . In the same way hic and iste are often changed to ille.
- 2. Adverbs meaning here or now are often changed to those meaning there or then; nunc to tum; hic to illic.
 - 3. In the use of pronouns observe
- 1) That references to the Speaker whose words are reported are made, if of the 1st Pers. by ègo, meus, noster, etc., if of the 2d Pers. by tu, tuus, etc., and if of the 3d Pers. by sui, suus, ipse, etc., though sometimes by Lic, is, ille.
- 2) That references to the Reporter, or Author, are made by $\check{e}go_s$ meus, etc.
- 3) That references to the Person Addressed by the reporter are made by tu, tuus, etc.

Ariovistus respondit nos esse ĭnīquos qui se interpellārēmus (direct: vos estis ĭnīqui qui me, etc.), Ariovistus replied that we were unjust who interrupted him. Caes.

Here nos refers to the Reporter, Caesar, we Romans. Se refers to the Speaker, Ariovistus. In the second example under 528, te refers to the Person Addressed.

SECTION VII.

IMPERATIVE.

I. TENSES OF THE IMPERATIVE.

534. The Imperative has but two Tenses:

I. The Present has only the Second person, and corresponds to the English Imperative:

Justitiam cole, Practise justice. Cic. Perge, Cătilina, Go, Catiline. Cic.

II. The Future has the Second and Third persons, and corresponds to the imperative use of the English Future with *shall*, or to the Imperative *let*:

Ii consules appellantor, They shall be called consuls, or let them be called consuls. Cic. Quod dixero, fueitote, You shall do what I say (shall have said). Ter.

1. Future for Present.—The Future Imperative is sometimes used where we should expect the Present:

Quoniam supplicatio decreta est, celebratote illos dies, Since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic.

This is particularly common in certain verbs: thus scio has only the forms of the Future in common use.

2. Present for Future.—The Imperative Present is often used in poetry, and sometimes in prose, of an action which belongs entirely to the future:

Ubi ăciem videris, tum ordines dissipa, When you shall see the line of battle, then scatter the ranks. Liv.

II. Use of the Imperative.

RULE XLVIII.—Imperative.

535. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties:

Justitiam cole, Practise justice. Cic. Tu ne cede malis, Do not yield to misfortunes. Virg. Si quid in te peccavi, ignosce, If I have sinned against you, pardon me. Cic.

- 1. Circumlocutions.—Instead of the simple Imperative, several circumlocutions are common:
 - 1) Cūra ut, fac ut, fac, each with the Subjunctive:

Cura ut věnias, See that you come. Cic. See 489.

2) Fac ne, căve ne, căve, with the Subjunctive :

Cave facias, Beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

3) Noli, nolite, with the Infinitive:

Noli imitari, do not imitate. Cic. See 528. 2.

2. IMPERATIVE CLAUSE FOR CONDITION.—An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Lǎcesse; jam vǐdēbis fǔrentem, Provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.

3. IMPERATIVE SUPPLIED.—The place of the Imperative may be variously supplied:

1) By the Subjunctive of Desire (487):

Sint beati, Let them be happy. Cic. Impii ne audeant, Let not the impious dare. Cic.

2) By the Indicative Future:

Quod optimum vidēbitur, făcies, You will do (for Imper. do) what shall seem best. Cic.

- 536. The Imperative Present, like the English Imperative, is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties. See examples under the Rule.
 - 537. The Imperative Future is used,
- I. In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditöte, You shall consider the subject. Cic. Cras pětito; dăbitur, Ask to-morrow; it shall be granted. Plaut.

II. In laws, orders, precepts, etc.:

Consŭles nēmĭni pārento, The consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Sălus popŭli suprēma lex esto, The safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Cic.

- 538. IMPERATIVE IN PROHIBITIONS.—In prohibitions or negative commands,
- 1. The negative ne, rarely non, accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required, nēve, or neu, is generally used, rarely něque:

Tu ne cēde mālis, Do not yield to misfortunes. Virg. Hŏmĭnem mortuum in urbe ne sĕpĕlīto, nēve ūrīto, Thou shalt not bury or burn a dead body in the city. Cic.

2. Instead of *ne* with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use *noli* and *nolite* with the Infinitive:

Nölite putare (for ne putate), do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic.

SECTION VIII.

INFINITIVE.

- 539. The treatment of the Latin Infinitive embraces four topics:
 - I. The Tenses of the Infinitive.
 - II. The Subject of the Infinitive.
 - III. The Predicate after the Infinitive.
 - IV. The Construction of the Infinitive.

I. Tenses of the Infinitive.

- 540. The Infinitive has three tenses, Present, Perfect, and Future. They express however not absolute, but relative time, denoting respectively Present, Past, or Future time, relatively to the Principal verb.
- 1. Peculiarities.—These tenses present the leading peculiarities specified under these tenses in the Indicative. See 467. 2.
- 541. The Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb:

Căpio me esse clementem, I desire to be mild. Cic. Maluit se diligi quam mětui, He preferred to be loved rather than feared. Nep.

- 1. REAL TIME.—Hence the real time denoted by the Present Infinitive is the time of the verb on which it depends.
- 2. Present for Future.-The Present is sometimes used for the Future and sometimes has little or no reference to time:

Cras argentum dare dixit, He said he would give the silver to-morrow. Ter.

3. Present with Debeo, Possum, etc.-After the past tenses of debeo, oportet, possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after memini, and the like:

Dēbuit officiosior esse. He ought to have been more attentive. Cic. Id potuit fácere, He might have done this. Cic.

542. The Perfect Infinitive represents the action as completed at the time denoted by the principal verb:

Plătonem ferunt in Italiam venisse, They say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Conscius mihi ĕram, nihil a me commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

1. REAL TIME.—Hence the real time denoted by the Perfect Infinitive is that of the Perfect tense, if dependent upon the Present, and that of the Pluperfect, if dependent upon a Historical tense, as in the examples.

2. Perfect for Present .- In the poets the Perfect Infinitive is sometimes used for the Present, rarely in prose:

Tetigisse timent poetam, They fear to touch (to have touched) the poet. Hor.

- 3. Passive Infinitive.—The Passive Infinitive with esse sometimes denotes the result of the action: victus esse, to have been vanquished, and so, to be a vanquished man. Fuisse for esse emphasizes the completeness of the action: victus fuisse, to have been vanquished. See 575. 1.
- 543. The Future Infinitive represents the action as about to take place in time subsequent to that of the principal verb:

Brūtum vīsum īri a me pūto, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cic. Oraculum dătum erat victrices Athenas fore, An oracle had been giren, that Athens would be victorious. Cic.

Hence after a Principal tense the real time of the Future Infinitive is Future, but after a Historical tense the real time can be determined only by the context.

544. CIRCUMLOCUTION FOR FUTURE INFINITIVE.—Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the circumlocution futurum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive,—Present after a Principal tense, and Imperfect after a Historical tense,—is frequently used:

Spēro före ut contingat id nōbis, *I hope this will fall to our lot* (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cic. Non spērāvěrat Hannībal, före ut ad se dēfīcěrent, *Hannībal had not hoped that they would revolt to him.* Liv. See 556. II. 1.

CIECUMLOCUTION NECESSARY.—Fătūrum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, for the Future Infinitive, is common in the Passive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the Participle in rus.

2. Fore ut with Perfect Subjunctive.—Sometimes fore ut with the Subjunctive, Perfect or Pluperfect, is used with the force of a Future Perfect; and in Passive and Deponent verbs, fore with the Perfect Participle may be used with the same force:

Dico me sătis ădeptum fore, I say that I shall have obtained enough, Cie.

3. FUTUREM FUISSE UT WITH SUBJUNCTIVE.—Fütürum fuisse ut with the Subjunctive may be used in the conclusion of a conditional sentence of the third form when made dependent:

Nisi nuntii essent allāti, existīmābant fūtūrum fuisse, ut oppīdum āmittěrētur, They thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought. Caes. See 583. 2.

II. SUBJECT OF INFINITIVE.

RULE XLIX.-Subject.

545. The Subject of an Infinitive is put in the Accusative:

Sentīmus călēre ignem, We perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Plătonem Tărentum vēnisse rěpěrio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic.

1. HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.—In lively description the Infinitive is sometimes used for the Indicative Imperfect. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Hostes gaesa conjicere, The enemy hurled their javelins. Caes.

The Historical Infinitive may often be explained by supplying coepit or coepit-runt; but in most instances it is better to treat it simply as an idiom of the language.

- 2. Subject Omitted.—The Subject of an Infinitive may be omitted:
- 1) When it denotes the same person or thing as the subject of the principal clause, or may be readily supplied from the context:

Magna něgūtia völunt ăgěre, They wish to accomplish great undertakings. Cic. Peccāre licet němini, It is not lawful for any one to sin. Cic.

2) When it is indefinite or general:

Dīligi jūcundum est, It is pleasant to be loved. Cic.

3. Infinitive Omitted.—Esse and fuisse are often omitted in the compound forms of the Infinitive and with predicate adjectives, other infinitives less frequently (551. 5):

Audīvi sŏlītum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius was wont. Cic. Spērāmus nobis profútūros, We hope to benefit you. Cic.

III. PREDICATE AFTER INFINITIVE.

546. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after an Infinitive regularly agrees with the Subject, expressed or understood (362.3):

Ego me Phīdiam esse mallem, I should prefer to be Phidias. Cic. Trādītum est, Homērum caecum fuisse, It has been handed down oy traditionthat Homer was blind. Cic. Jugurtha omnībus cārus esse (historical infinitive), Jugurtha was dear to all. Sall.

- 547. A Predicate Noun or Adjective, after an Infinitive whose Subject is omitted, is often attracted into the Nominative or Dative:
- I. It is attracted into the Nominative to agree with the Subject of the principal verb, when the latter is the same person of thing as the omitted Subject:

Nõlo esse laudātor, I am unvilling to be an culogist. Cic. Beātus esse sine virtūte nēmo pōtest, No one can be happy without virtue. Cic.

1. This occurs most frequently (1) after verbs of duty, ability, courage, custom, desire, beginning, continuing, ending, and the like—debeo, possum, audeo, soleo, cupio, volo, mālo, nōlo, incipio, pergo, dēsino, etc., and (2) after various Passive verbs of saying, thinking, finding, seeming, and the like—dicor, trādor, feror—credor, existimor, putor—reperior—videor, etc.:

Quis scientior esse debuit, Who ought to have been more learned? Cic. Părens dīci pŏtest, He can be called a parent. Cic. Stoicus esse vŏluit, He wished to be a Stoic. Cic. Dēsīnant esse tǐmīdi, Let them cease to be timīd. Cic. Inventor esse dīcǐtur, He is said to be the inventor. Cic. Prūdens esse pǔtābātur, He was thought to be prudent. Cic.

- 2. Participles in the compound tenses of the Infinitive are also attracted: Pollřeštus esse dřeštur, He is said to have promised. Cic.
- II. The Predicate Noun or Adjective is sometimes attracted into the Dative to agree with a Dative in the principal clause, when the latter denotes the same person or thing as the omitted Subject:

Patricio tribuno plebis fieri non licebat, It was not lauful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people. Cic. Mihi negligenti esse non licuit, It was not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

- 1. This is rare, but is the regular construction after *licet*, and sometimes occurs after $n\'{e}cesse$ est, when used after $l\'{e}cet$, and occasionally in other connections:
- Illis timidis licet esse, nobis necesse est fortibus viris esse, It is permitted them to be timid, it is necessary for us to be brave men. Liv. But,
 - 2. Even with Licet the attraction does not always take place:
 - Ei consulem fiéri licet, It is lawful for him to be made consul. Caes.

IV. Construction of the Infinitive.

- 548. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, has in general the construction of a Noun in the Nominative or Accusative, and is used,
 - I. As a Nominative—Subject of a Verb.
 - II. As an Accusative—Object of a Verb.
 - III. In Special Constructions.

I. Infinitive as Subject.

549. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, is often used as a Nominative, and is thus made the Subject of a sentence, according to Rule III.:

WITH Subject.—Făcinus est vinciri civem Romanum, That a Romanicitizen should be bound is a crime. Cic. Certum est libéros ămāri, It is certain that children are loved. Quint. Lēgem brevem esse oportet, It is necessary that a law be brief. Sen.

WITHOUT SUBJECT.—Ars est difficilis rem publicam regere, To rule a state is a difficult art. Cic. Cārum esse jūcundum est, It is pleasant to be held dear. Cic. Hace scīre jūvat, To know these things affords pleasure. Sen. Peccāre licet nēmini, To sin is not lawful for any one. Cic.

- 1. Infinitive as Subject.—When the subject is an Infinitive, the Predicate is either (1) a Noun or Adjective with Sum, or (2) an Impersonal verb or a verb used Impersonally. See the examples above.
 - 1) Tempus = tempestivum is thus used with the Infinitive:
 - Tempus est dicere, It is time to speak. Cic.
- 2. Infinitive as Subject of an Infinitive.—The Infinitive may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intelligi necesse est esse deos, It must be understood that there are gods. Cic. Esse deos is the subject of intelligi, and intelligi esse deos of necesse est.

3. Infinitive with Demonstrative.—The Infinitive sometimes takes a Demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quïbusdam hoc displicet philosophāri, This philosophizing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cic. Vīvere ipsum turpe est nobis, To live is itself ignoble for us. Cic.

4. Personal construction for Impersonal.—With Passive verbs, instead of the Infinitive with a subject accusative, a Personal construction is

common, by which the Subject Accusative becomes the Subject Nominative of the leading verb:

Aristīdes justissīmus fuisse trādītur (for Aristīdem justissīmum fuisse

traditur), Aristides is said to have been most just. Cic.

1) The Personal Construction is used, (1) regularly with videor, jubeor, vitor, and the Simple Tenses of many verbs of saying, thinking, and the like—dicor, trādor, fēror, perhibeor, putor, existimor, etc., also with coeptus sum and dēsitus sum with a Passive Infinitive, and (2) sometimes with other verbs of saying, showing, perceiving, finding, and the like.

Sölem e mundo tollére videntur, They seem to remove the sun from the world. Cic. Plătönem audivisse dicitur, He is said to have heard Plato. Cic. Dii beāti esse intelliguntur, The gods are understood to be happy. Cic.

2) In successive clauses the Personal construction is often followed by

the Impersonal.

3) Videor with or without a Dative often means to fancy, think: mihi videor or videor, I fancy; ut videmur, as we fancy.

II. Infinitive as Object.

550. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, is often used as an Accusative, and is thus made the object of a verb, according to Rule V.:

Te dīcunt esse săpientem, They say that you are wise. Cic. Haec vītāre cǔpīmus, We desire to avoid these things. Cic. Mănēre dēcrēvit, He decided to remain. Nep.

- 551. Infinitive with Subject Accusative.—This is used as object with a great variety of verbs. Thus,
- I. With Verbs of Perceiving and Declaring,— Verba Sentiendi et Dēclārandi.
 - II. With Verbs of Wishing and Desiring. III. With Verbs of Emotion and Feeling.
- I. WITH VERBS OF PERCEIVING AND DECLARING.—Sentimus călere ignem, We perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Mihi narrăvit te sollicitum esse, He told me that you were troubled. Cic. Scripserunt Themistoclem in Asiam transisse, They wrote that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep.
- 1. Verba Sentiendi.— Verbs of Perceiving include those which involve (1) the exercise of the senses: audio, video, sentio, etc., and (2) the exercise of the mind: thinking, believing, knowing, cōgito, puto, existimo, crēdo, spēro,—intelligo, seio, etc.
- 2. Verba Declarandi.—Verbs of Declaring are such as state or communicate facts or thoughts: dico, narro, nuntio, doceo, ostendo, promitto, etc.
- 3. Expressions with the Force of Verbs.—The Infinitive with a subject may be used with expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and declaring. Thus:

With $f\bar{u}ma$ fert, report says, testis sum, I am a witness = I testify; consciut mihi sum, I am conscious, I know:

Nullam mihi relatam esse gratiam, tu es testis, You are a witness (can testify) that no grateful return has been made to me. Cic.

4. Participle for Infinitive.—Verbs of Perceiving take the Accusative with the Present Participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action:

Cătōnem vīdi in bibliothēca sĕdentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library. Cic.

5. Subjects Compared.—When two subjects with the same predicate are compared by means of quam, idem—qui, etc.; if the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative with its Infinitive omitted may follow in the second:

Plătonem ferunt idem sensisse, quod Pythăgoram, They say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.

6. PREDICATES COMPARED.—When two predicates with the same subject are compared and the Infinitive with a Subject is used in the first clause, the Infinitive with its subject omitted often follows in the second:

Num pătătis, dixisse Antonium minăcius quam facturum fuisse, Do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic.

But the second clause may take the subjunctive, with or without ut:

Audeo dicère ipsos pòtius cultòres agròrum fòre quam ut còli prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled. Liv.

II. WITH VERBS OF WISHING AND DESIRING.—The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is also used with verbs of Wishing and Desiring:

Te tua frui virtūte cŭpĭmus, We desire that you should enjoy your virtue. Cic. Pontem jūbet rescindi, He orders the bridge to be broken down (that the bridge should be broken down). Caes. Lex eum něcāri větuit, The law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

- 1. Verbs of Wishing.—The Infinitive is thus used not only with verbs which directly express a wish, cupio, võlo, nõlo, mālo, etc., but also with many which involve a wish or command: putior, sino, to permit; impēro, jubeo, to command; prohibeo, vēto, to forbid. See also 558. II.
- 2. Subjunctive for Infinitive.—Several verbs involving a wish or command admit the Subjunctive:
 - 1) Opto. See 492. 3.
- Völo, mālo, nōlo, impēro, and jūbeo admit the Subjunctive, generally with ut or ne:

Vôlo ut respondeas, I wish you would reply. Cic. Milo to hostis mětuat, I prefer that the enemy should fear you. Cic.

- 3) Concēdo, permitto, rarely pátior and sino, admit the Subjunctive with ut: Concēdo ut have apta sint, I admit that these things are suitable. Cic.
- III. WITH VERBS OF EMOTION OR FEELING.—The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is also used with verbs of *Emotion* or *Feeling*:

Gaudeo, te mihi suādēre, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Mīrāmur, te laetāri, We wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Verbs of emotion are gaudeo, dóleo, miror, quéror, and the like; also aegre féro, gráviter féro, etc.

552. Infinitive without Subject Accusative.—This is used as Object with many verbs:

Vincere scis, You know how to conquer (you know to conquer). Liv. Credili esse coepement, They began to be credulous. Cic. Hace vitare cupimus, We desire to avoid these things. Cic. Solent cogitare, They are accustomed to think. Cic. Nemo mortem effugere potest, No one is able to escape death. Cic.

- 1. Verbs with the Infinitive.—The Infinitive may depend upon verbs signifying to dare, desire, determine—begin, continue, end—know, learn, neglect—oure, promise, etc., also to be able, be accustomed, be wont, etc.
- 2. Infinitive as a Second Object.—With a few verbs—docso, cogo, assuefacio, arguo, etc.—the Infinitive is used in connection with a direct object; see 374.4:

Te săpěre docet, He teaches you to be wise. Cic. Nātiūnes pārēre assucfēcit, He accustomed the nations to chey. Cic.

In the Passive these verbs of course retain the Infinitive:

Num sum Graece loqui docendus, Must I be taught to speak Greek? Cic.

3. Infinitive after Adjectives.—By a construction according to sense, the Infinitive is used after adjectives in the sense of participles or verbs with the Infinitive:

Est părătus (vult) audīre, He is prepared to hear (is willing to hear). Cic. Pēlīdes cēdēre nescius (= nesciens), Pelides not knowing how to yield. Hor. Avidi committere pugnam, eager to engage battle. Ovid.

This construction is rare in good prose, but common in poetry.

4. Infinitive with Prepositions.—The Infinitive regarded as a noun in the accusative, sometimes depends upon a preposition:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, There is a great difference between giving and receiving. Sen.

III. Infinitive in Special Constructions.

553. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, is generally used as the Subject or Object of a verb, but sometimes occurs in other relations. It is thus used,

I. As Predicate; see 362:

Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis: sibi nullam cum his ămīcitiam, The close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Caes. Vīvēre est cōgitāre, To live is to think. Cic.

Here stbi-dmictiam is used substantively, and is the Predicate Nominative after fuit, according to Rule I. Cogitare is in the same construction after est

II. As Appositive; see 363:

Orāculum dătum erat victrīces Athēnas fore, The oracle that Athens would be rictorious had been given. Cic. Illud soleo mīrāri non me accīpēre tuas littēras, I am accustomed to wonder at this, that I do not receive your letter. Cic.

- 1. With Subject.—In this construction the Infinitive takes a subject accusative, as in the examples.
- 2. Explanation.—In the examples, the clause victrices Athenas fore is in apposition with oraculum, and the clause non me accipére tuas littéras, in apposition with illud.

III. In Exclamations; see 381:

Te sic vexări, that you should be thus troubled! Cic. Mene incepto desistere victam, that I ranquished should abandon my undertaking! Virg.

- 1. WITH Subject.—In this construction the Infinitive takes a Subject, as in the examples.
- 2. Explanation.—This use of the Infinitive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of Accusative and Nominative in exclamations (351, 351. 3). It may often be explained as an Accus. by supplying some verb. as dôleo, etc., or as a Nom. by supplying cridendum est or crédibile est. Thus the first example becomes: I grieve (dôleo) that you, etc., and the second becomes: Is it to be supposed (crédendum est) that I ranquished, etc.
- 3. IMPASSIONED QUESTIONS.—This construction is most frequent in impassioned questions, as in the second example.

IV. As Ablative Absolute. See 431. 4.

V. To express Purpose:

Pěcus ěgit altos visčre montes, He drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Non populāre pēnātes vēnīmus, We have not come to lay waste your homes. Virg.

This construction is confined to poetry.

VI. Poetic Infinitive for Gerund. See 563. 6.

SECTION IX.

SUBJECT AND OBJECT CLAUSES.

- 554. Subject and Object Clauses, in which, as we have just seen (549 and 550), the Infinitive is so freely used, assume four distinct forms:
- I. Indirect Questions.—These represent the Subject or Object as *Interrogative* in character:

Quarritur, cur dissentiant, It is asked why they disagree. Cic. Quid agendum sit, nescio, I do not know what ought to be done. Cic. See 525.

II. Infinitive Clauses.—These have simply the force of Nouns, merely supplying the place of the Nominative, or the Accusative:

Antěcellěre contigit, It was his good fortune to excel (to excel happened). Cic. Magna něgōtia věluit ăgěre, He wished to achieve great undertakings. Cic. See 549, 550.

III. Subjunctive Clauses.—These clauses introduced by *ut*, *ne*, etc., are only occasionally used as subject or object, and even then involve Purpose or Result:

Contigit ut patriam vindicaret, It was his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Völo ut mihi respondeas, I wish you would answer me. Cic. See 492, 495.

Here ut—rindicaret is at once subject and result: it was his good fortune to save his country, or his good fortune was such that he saved his country. In the second example, ut—respondeas expresses not only the object desired, but also the purpose of the desire.

IV. Clauses with Quod.—These again are only occasionally used as subject or object, and even then either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a Ground or Reason:

Běněfícium est quod něcesse est měri, It is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeo quod te interpellāvi, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic. See 520.

Clauses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of remark:

Quod me Agămemnonem aemulări pătas, falleris, As to the fact that you think I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken. Nep.

I. Forms of Subject Clauses.

- 555. Interrogative.—Subject clauses which are interrogative in character, of course take the form of indirect questions. See 525. 2 and 554. I.
- 556. Not Interrogative.—Subject clauses which are not interrogative, with some predicates take the form of Infinitive clauses, or clauses with *quod*; while with other predicates they take the form of Subjunctive clauses with *ut*, *ne*, etc. Thus,
- I. With most impersonal verbs and with predicates consisting of est with a Noun or Adjective, the Subject may be supplied (1) by the Infinitive with or without a Subject Accusative, or, (2) if

the fact is to be made prominent or adduced as a reason, by a clause with quod:

Me poenitet vixisse, I regret that I have lived. Cic. Quod te offendi me poenitet, I regret that (or because) I have offended you. Cic.

1. Substantive Predicates with Subjunctive.—Mos est, moris est, consuctudo est, consuctudinis est, It is a custom, etc., admit the Subjunctive for the Infinitive:

Mos est höminum ut nölint, It is a custom of men that they are not willing. Cic.

 Adjective Predicates with Subjunctive.—Rëliquum est, proximum est, extremum est—verum est, verisimile est, falsum est—gloriosum est, mirum est, optimum est, etc., admit the Subjunctive for the Infinitive:

Reliquum est ut certemus, it remains that we contend. Cic. Verum est ut bonos diligant, It is true that they love the good. Cic.

II. With Impersonal verbs signifying to happen—accidit, contingit, evenit, fit—ut, ut non, with the Subjunctive, is generally used (495. 2):

Thrasybulus (happened to him) to deliver his country. Nep.

- 1. Here belong accedit ut, est ut, futurum esse ut, or fore ut. See 544.
- 2. Clauses with quod also occur with verbs of happening.

III. With Impersonal verbs signifying it follows, remains, is distant, and the like, the Subjunctive clause with ut is generally used:

Rělinquitur, ut quiescāmus, It remains that we should submit. Cic. Sec 495. 2.

IV. Subjunctive clause standing alone. See 495. 2. 2).

II. FORMS OF OBJECT CLAUSES.

- 557. Interrogative.—Object clauses which are interrogative in character, of course, take the form of indirect questions. See 554. I.
- 558. Not Interrogative.—Object clauses which are not interrogative in character, supplying the place of direct objects after transitive verbs, sometimes take the form of Infinitive clauses, sometimes of Subjunctive clauses, and sometimes of clauses with quod. Thus,
 - I. Verbs of declaring take,
- 1. Regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. See 551. I.
- 2. But the Subjunctive with ut or ne, when they involve a command:

Döläbellae dixit, ut ad me scrīběret ut in Ităliam věnīrem, He told Dolabella to write to me to come into Italy. Cic. See 492. 2.

- II. Verbs of determining, stătuo, constituo, decerno, and the like, take,
- 1. Generally the Infinitive, when the subject is the same as that of the principal verb, rarely the Subjunctive:

Mănēre decrevit, He determined to remain. Nep. Stätuerunt, ut libertatem defenderent, They determined to defend liberty. Cic. See 551. II.

2. The Subjunctive with ut or ne (expressed or understood), when a new subject is introduced:

Constituerat, ut tribūnus quereretur, He had arranged that the tribune should enter the complaint. Sall. Senātus dēcrēvit, därent operam consules, The senate decreed that the consuls should attend to it. Sall. See 492.3.

Statuo, decerno, etc., when they mean to think, deem, suppose, etc., become verba sentiendi (551. I. 1), and of course take the infinitive:

Laudem supientiae stutuo esse maximam, I deem it to be the highest praise of wisdom. Cic.

III. Verbs of STRIVING, ENDEAVORING, take the Subjunctive with ut or ne. See 492. 1. But contendo, nitor, studeo, and tento, generally take the Infinitive when the subject is the same:

Lŏcum oppugnāre contendit, He proceeds to storm the city. Caes. Tentābo de hoc dīcĕre, I will attempt to speak of this. Quint. See 552.

- IV. Verbs of Causing, Making, accomplishing, take the Subjunctive with ut, ne, ut non. See 492, 495.
- 1. Examples.—Făcio, efficio, perficio—ădipiscor, impetro—assequor, consequor, and sometimes fero, are examples of verbs of this class.
- 2. Facto and Efficio.—Fúcio in the sense of assume, suppose, takes the Infinitive; efficio in the sense of prove, show, either the Infinitive or the Subjunctive with ut, etc.:

Fac ănimos non remănere post mortem, Assume that souls do not survive after death. Cic. Vult efficere animos esse mortales, He wishes to show that souls are mortal. Cic.

- V. Verbs of emotion of feeling, whether of joy or sorrow, take.
- 1. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative, to express the Object in view of which the feeling is exercised. See 551. III.
- 2. Clauses with quod, to make more prominent the Reason for the feeling:

Gaudeo quod te interpellävi, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupted you. Cic. Dölebam quod sõcium ämiseram, I was grieving because I hal lost a companion. Cic. See 520. I.

For Verbs of Desiring, see 551. II. 2.

VI. Verbs of asking, demanding, advising, warning, com-

MANDING, and the like, take the Subjunctive, generally with ut or ne:

Oro ut hömines miseros conserves, I implore that you would preserve the unhappy men. Cic. Postulant ut signum detur, They demand that the signal be given. Liv. See 492. 2.

- 1. Examples.—Verbs of this class are numerous—the following are examples: ōro, rōgo, pēto, prēcor, obsēcro—flūgito, postulo, praecīpio—hortor, moneo, suādeo, persuādeo—impello, incito, moveo, commoveo.
- USED AS VEEBA DECLARANDI.—Some of these verbs in particular significations become rerba declarandi (551, 2), and accordingly take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative: thus moneo, in the sense of remind and persuadeo in the sense of convince.
- 3. Infinitive.—Even in their ordinary significations some of these verbs, especially hortor, moneo, and postalo, sometimes take the Infinitive with or without a Subject Accusative:
- Postulat se absolvi, He demands that he should be acquitted. Cic. See 551. II. 1 and 2.

The Infinitive is much more common in poetry than in prose.

SECTION X.

GERUND.

- 559. The Gerund is a verb in force, but a noun in form and inflection. As a verb it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers, as a noun it is itself governed.
- 560. The Gerund has four cases: Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative, governed like nouns in the same situation:

Beāte vīvendi cupiditāte incensi sumus, We are animated with the desire of living happily. Cic. Charta inutilis scribendo, paper unfit for writing. Plin. Ad agendum nātus, born for action. Cic. In agendo, in acting. Cic.

- 1. Accusative.—The Accusative of the Gerund is used only after Prepositions.
- 2. Gerund and Infinitive.—The gerund and the infinitive are kindred forms, expressing the meaning of the verb in the form of a noun (196. II.). They are also complements of each other, the one supplying the parts which are wanting in the other. Thus the infinitive supplies the nominative and the accusative after verbs (548); the gerund supplies the genitive, dative, and ablative, and the accusative after prepositions.
- 561. Gerunds with Direct Objects are regularly used only in the Genitive and in the Ablative without a preposition:

Jus vocandi senātum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Injūrias ferendo laudem mereberis, You will merit praise by bearing wrongs. Cic.

562. GERUNDIVE.—The place of the Gerund with a Direct Object is supplied by putting that object in the case of the Gerund and changing the latter into the participle in -dus in agreement with it. The participle is then called a Gerundive:

Inita sunt consilia urbis delendae = urbem delendi, Plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Núma săcerdotibus creandis ănimum adjecit, Numa gave his attention to the appointment of priests. Liv.

1. Explanation.—With the Gerund, the first example would be: Inita sunt consilia urbem delendi, in which delendi is governed by consilia, and urbem by delendi. In changing this to the Gerundive construction,

1) Urbem, the object, is changed into urbis, the case of the gerund, and is

governed by consilia.

Dēlēndi, the gerund, is changed into dēlendae, the gerundive, in agreement with urbis.

2. Gerundive.—For the sake of brevity, the term Gerundive is used not only to designate the Participle, but also the Construction as a whole, including both the participle and the noun with which it agrees.

3. Use of Gerundive.—The Gerundive may be used for the Gerund with a Direct Object, and is almost invariably so used when the Gerund would be in the Dative or would depend upon a preposition. But see 563. 2.

But in a few instances the Gerund with a Direct Object occurs in the Dative or dependent upon a preposition. See 564.1; 565.2; and 566.2.

4. Gerundives of tror, fruor, etc.—In general only the gerundives of transitive verbs are used with their nouns as equivalents for Gerunds with Direct Objects; but the gerundives of ūtor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, and vescor, originally transitive verbs, admit this construction:

Ad munus fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cic. Spes potiundorum eastrorum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Caes.

5. Passive Sense.—In a few instances, the Gerund has in appearance a passive sense:

Něque håbent propriam pereĭpiendi nötam, Nor have they any proper mark of distinction, i. e., to distinguish them. Cic.

I. GENITIVE OF GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

563. The Genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with nouns and adjectives:

Gerund.—Ars vivendi, the art of living. Cic. Studiosus erat audiendi, He was desirous of hearing. Nep. Jus vocandi senatum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Cupidus te audiendi, desirous of hearing you. Cic.

Gerundive.—Libido ejus videndi, the desire of seeing him. Cic. Plătonis studiosus audiendi fuit, He was fond of hearing Plato, Cic.

1. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive occurs most frequently-

1) With ars, scientia, consuētūdo,—cŭpĭdĭtas, lĭbīdo, stŭdium, consĭlium, vŏluntas, spes,—pŏtestas, făcultas, diffĭcultas, occāsio, tempus,—gĕnus, mŏdus, rătio,—causa, grātia, etc.

2) With adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, skill, recollection, and their opposites: avidus, cupidus, studiosus—conscius, gnārus, ignārus—pērī-

tus, impěrītus, insuētus, etc.

2. Gerund preferred.—A gerund with a neuter pronoun or adjective as object should not be changed to the participial construction, because the latter could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vēra ac falsa dijūdīcandi, the art of distinguishing true things

from the false. Cic.

3. Gerund with Genitive.—The Gerund in the Genitive sometimes assumes so completely the force of a noun as to govern the Genitive instead of the Accusative:

Rejĭciendi jūdĭcum pŏtestas, the power of challenging (of) the judges. Cic.

Here rejiciendi may be governed by potestas, and may itself by its substantive force govern jūdicum, the challenging of the judges, etc. But these and similar forms • in di are sometimes explained not as Gerunds but as Gerundives, like Gerundives with mei, nostri, etc. See 4 below.

4. Participial Construction with Mei, Nostri, etc.—With the Genitive of personal pronouns—mei, nostri, tui, vestri, sui—the participle ends in di without reference to Number or Gender:

Copia placandi tui (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Ov. Sui conservandi causa, for the purpose of preserving themselves. Cic. Vestri adhortandi causa, for the purpose of exhorting you. Liv.

This apparent irregularity may be accounted for by the fact that these genitives, though used as Personal Pronouns, are all strictly in form in the neuter singular of the Possessives meum, tuum, suum, etc., hence the participle in di agrees with them perfectly.

5. Purpose.—The Genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is sometimes

used to express Purpose or Tendency:

Hace trādendae Hannibāli victūriae sunt, These things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Lēges pellendi elāros viros, laws for driving away illustrious men. Tac. Proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitātis, He sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity. Tac.

This genitive is sometimes best explained as Predicate Genitive (401), as in the first example; sometimes as dependent upon a noun, as *pellendi* dependent upon *léges* in the second example; and sometimes simply as a Genitive of Cause (393, 409. 4), as in the third example; though in such cases, especially in the second and third, *causa* may be supplied.

6. Infinitive for Gerund.—The Infinitive for the Genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is often used in the poets with nouns and adjectives, sometimes even in prose:

Cupido Stygios innare lacus, the desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Virg. Avidus committere pugnam, eager to engage battle. Ovid.

II. DATIVE OF GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

564. The Dative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Gerund.—Quum solvendo non essent, Since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aqua ūtilis est bibendo, Water is useful for drinking. Plin.

Gerendive.—Löcum oppido condendo ceperunt, They selected a place for founding a city. Liv. Tempora demètendis fructibus accommodata, seasons suitable for gathering fruits. Cic.

- 1. Gerend.—The Dative of the Gerund is rare and confined mostly to late writers; with an object it is almost without example.
- 2. Gerundive of Purpose.—In Livy, Tacitus, and late writers, the Dative of the Gerundive often denotes purpose:

Firmandae văletudini in Campaniam concessit, He withdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac.

3. Gerundive with Official Names.—The Dative of the Gerundive also stands after certain official names, as decemviri, triumviri, comitia:

Décemviros legibus scribendis creāvimus, We have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv. But the Dative is perhaps best explained as dependent upon the verb.

III. ACCUSATIVE OF GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

565. The Accusative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used after a few prepositions:

Gerund.—Ad discendum propensi sumus, We are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter ludendum, in or during play. Quint.

Generalize.—Ad colendos agros, for cultivating the fields. Cic. Ante condendam urbem, before the founding of the city. Liv.

- 1. Prepositions.—The Accusative of the gerund or gerundive is used most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and ob; very rarely after ante, circa, and in.
- 2. WITH OBJECT.—The accusative of a gerund with a direct object sometimes occurs, but is rare:

Ad placandum deos pertinet, It tends to appease the gods. Cic.

3. Purpose.—With verbs of giving, permitting, leaving, taking, etc., the purpose of the action is sometimes denoted by the Gerund with ad, or by the Gerundive in agreement with a noun:

Ad ĭmĭtandum mihi prōpŏsĭtum exemplar illud, That model has been set before me for imitation. Cic. Attrībuit Itāliam vastandam (for ad vastandum) Cătīlīnae, He assigned Italy to Catiline to ravage (to be ravaged). Cic.

IV. ABLATIVE OF GERUNDS OR GERUNDIVES.

566. The Ablative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used,

I. As Ablative of Means or Instrument:

Gerund.—Mens discendo ălitur, The mind is nourished by learning. Cic. Sălūtem hominibus dando, by giving safety to men. Cic.

GERUNDIVE.-Lěgendis örātöribus, by reading the orators. Cic.

II. With Prepositions:

GERUND.—Virtûtes cernuntur in ăgendo, Virtues are seen in action. Cic. Deterrere a scribendo, to deter from writing. Cic.

Gerundive.—Brūtus in lībčranda patria est interfectus, Brutus was slain

in liberating his country. Cic.

- 1. Prepositions.—The ablative of the gerund or gerundive is used most frequently after in; sometimes after a (ab), de, ex (e); very rarely after cum and pro.
- 2. WITH OBJECT.—After prepositions, the ablative of the gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare:

In tribuendo suum cuique, in giving every one his own. Cic.

3. WITHOUT A PREPOSITION, the ablative of the gerund or gerundive denotes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as time, separation, etc.:

Incipiendo refugi, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

SECTION XI.

SUPINE.

567. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verb in force, but a noun in form and inflection. As a verb it governs oblique cases, as a noun it is itself governed.

568. The Supine has but two cases: the Accusative in um and the Ablative in u.

RULE L.—Supine in Um.

569. The Supine in um is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose:

Lēgāti vēnērunt res rēpētītum, Deputies came to demand restitution. Liv. Ad Caesărem congrātūlātum convēnērunt, They came to Caesar to congratulate him. Caes.

1. The Supine in um occurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Filiam Agrippae nuptum dědit, He gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa. Suet.

2. The Supine in um with the verb ϵo is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonos omnes perditum eunt, They are going to destroy all the good. Sall.

But in subordinate clauses the Supine in um with the verb ϵo is often used for the simple verb:

Ultum îre, (= ulcisci) injūrias festīnat. He hastens to avenge the injuries. Sall.

3. The Supine in um with ∂ri , the infinitive passive of eo, forms, it will be remembered (241, III, 1), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brûtum vîsum îri a me puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cic.

4. The Supine in um as an expression of purpose is not very common, its place is often supplied even after verbs of motion by other constructions:

1) By ut or qui with the Subjunctive. See 489.

2) By Gerunds or Gerundires. Sec 563. 5; 564. 2; 565. 3.

3) By Participles. See 578. V.

570. The Supine in u is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (429):

Quid est tam jūcundum audītu, What is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)? Cic. Diffĭcĭle dictu est, It is difficult to tell. Cic.

- 1. The Supine in *u* is used chiefly with—jūcundus, optīmus—fūcilis, prūcilīvis, diffīcilis—inerēdībilis, mēmōrūbilis—hōnestus, turpis, fas, nefas—dīgnus, indīgnus— ōpus est.
- The Supine in u is very rare, and does not occur with an object. The only examples in common use are: auditu, cognitu, dictu, and factu.
 - 3. As the Supine in u is little used, its place is supplied by other constructions:
- By ad with the Gerund: Verba ad audiendum jucunda, words agreeable to hear. Cic.
 - 2) By the Infinitive: Făcile est vincere, It is easy to conquer. Cic.
- By a Finite Mood with an adverb: Non fäelle dijüdicätur ämor fictus, Pretended love is not easy to detect (is not easily detected). Cic.

SECTION XII.

PARTICIPLES.

I. Tenses of Participles.

571. Participles, like Infinitives, express only relative time, and represent the action as Present, Past, or Future, relatively to the principal verb.

Pectliarities.—Tenses in Participles present the leading peculiarities specified under the corresponding tenses in the Indicative. Sec 407. 2.

572. PRESENT PARTICIPLE.—The present participle represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb:

Oculus se non videns alia cernit, The eye, though it does not see itself (not

seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Plato scribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic.

573. Future Participle.—The future active participle represents the action as about to take place, in time subsequent to that of the principal verb:

Săpiens bona semper plăcitura laudat, The wise man praises blessings which will always please (being about to please). Sen.

But the Future Passive generally loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is often best rendered by a verbal noun. See 562 and 580.

574. Perfect Participle.—The perfect participle represents the action as completed at the time of the principal verb.

Uva mātūrāta dulcescit, The grape, when it has ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic.

1. The Perfect Participle, both in Deponent and in Passive verbs, is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in Passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun. See 580.

2. For the Participle with habeo, see 383. 1, 2).

II. Use of Participles.

575. Participles are verbs in force, but Adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs they govern oblique cases, as adjectives they agree with nouns:

Animus se non videns alia cernit, The mind, though it does not see itself, discerns other things. Cic.

- 1. Participles in the Present or Perfect, rarely in the Future, may be used as adjectives or nouns: $scripta\ \epsilon pistöla$, a written letter; mortui, the dead. Participles with the force of adjectives may be used as predicate adjectives with $sum: occŭpāti\ \epsilon rant$, they were occupied; as a verb, $had\ been$ occupied.
- 576. Participles are used to abridge or shorten discourse by supplying the place of finite verbs with relatives or conjunctions. They are used with much greater freedom in Latin than in English.
- 577. Participle for Relative Clause.—In abridged sentences, the Participle often supplies the place of a Relative Clause:

Omnes ăliud ăgentes, ăliud simulantes improbi sunt, All who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.

578. For other Subordinate Clauses.—The Participle often supplies the place of a subordinate clause with a conjunction. It may express,

I. Time:

Plăto scrībens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Itūri in proelium cănunt, They sing when about to go into battle. Tac.

II. Cause, Manner, Means:

Sol ŏriens diem conficit, The sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Milites renuntiant, se perfidiam veritos revertisse, The soldiers report that they returned because they feared perfidy (having feared). Caes.

III. Condition:

Mendāci homini ne vērum quidem dicenti crēdére non sölēmus, We are not wont to believe a liar, even if he speaks the truth. Cic. Rěluctante nātūra, irritus lábor est, If nature opposes, effort is vain. Sen.

IV. Concession:

Scripta tua jam diu exspectans, non audeo tämen flägitäre, Though I have been long expecting your work, yet I do not dare to ask for it. Cic.

V. Purpose:

Perseus rědiit, belli cāsum tentātūrus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war. Liv. Attribuit nos trucīdandos Cěthēgo, He assigned us to Cethegus to slaughter. Cic.

579. Participle for Principal Clause.—The Participle sometimes supplies the place of a principal or coördinate clause, and may accordingly be best rendered by a finite verb with and or but:

Classem devictam cepit, He conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Re consentientes vocabulis differebant, They agreed in fact, but differed in words. Cic.

580. Participle for Verbal Noun.—The Passive Participle is often used in Latin where the English idiom requires a participial noun, or a verbal noun with of:

In ămīcis ēlīgendis, in selecting friends. Cic. Hŏmērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the founding of Home (before Rome founded). Cic.

581. Participle with Negative.—The Participle

with a negative, as non, nihil, is often best rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:

Miserum est, nihil proficientem angi, It is sad to be troubled without accomplishing anything. Cic. Non erübescens, without blushing. Cic.

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.

RULE LI.-Use of Adverbs.

582. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs:

Săpientes feliciter vivunt, The wise live happily. Cic. Făcile doctissămus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Haud ăliter, not otherwise. Virg.

583. Adverbs are sometimes used with nouns:

1. When the nouns are used with the force of adjectives or participles:

Minime largitor dux, a leader by no means liberal. Liv. Populus late
rex, a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Virg.

2. When in sense a participle or verb may be supplied:

Mărius, plāne vir, Marius, truly a man. Cic. Omnes circa populi, all the surrounding peoples. Liv. See also 353. 2.

584. The Common Negative Particles are: non, ne, hand.

1. Non is the usual negative, ne is used in prohibitions, wishes and purposes (489), and haud, in haud scio an and with adjectives and adverbs; haud mīrābīle, not wonderful; haud ālīter, not otherwise. Ni for ne is rare. Ne non after vīde is often best rendered whether.

2. In non mödo non and in non sölum non, the second non is generally omitted before sed, or vērum, followed by ne-quidem or viv (rarely étiam), when the verb of the second clause belongs also to the first:

Assentatio non modo amico, sed ne libero quidem digna est. Flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.

3. Minus often has nearly the force of non; si minus = si non. Sin ditter has nearly the same force as si minus.

585. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Nihil non arroget, Let him claim everything. Hor. Néque hoc Zéno non videt, Nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

 Non before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nonnemo, some one; nonnihil, something; nonnunquam, sometimes.

Nemo non, every one; nihil non, every thing; nunquam non, always.

 After a general negative, ne-quidem gives emphasis to the negation, and neque-neque, neve-neve, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non practéreundum est ne id quidem, We must not pass by even this. Cic. Nomo unquam noque poeta noque orator fuit, No one was ever either a poet or orator. Cic.

- 3. Sic and ita mean so, thus. Ita has also a limiting sense in so far which does not belong to sic, as in ita—si (503. 4). Adeo, to such a degree or result; tam, tan-topere, so much, tam used mostly before adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere before verbs.
 - 586. For the use of Prepositions, see 432 to 437.
- 587. Coördinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions (309). They comprise five classes:
 - I. Copulative Conjunctions denote union:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Cic. Sénātus populusque, the senate and people. Cic. Nec erat difficile, Nor was it difficult. Liv.

- 1. List. See 310. 1.
- 2. DIFFERENCE IN FORCE.—Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque generally gives prominence to what follows, especially at the beginning of a sentence; ac, abbreviated from atque, has generally the force of et. Nèque and nec have the force of et non. Et and étiam sometimes mean even.

Atque and ac generally mean as, than after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness; similis, dissimilis, similiter, par, pariter, acque, alius, aliter, secus: acque ac, equally as; aliter atque, otherwise than. See also 451. 5.

- 3. Que, ac, atque.—Que is an enclitic, i. e., is always appended to some other word. Ac in the best prose is used only before consonants; atque, either before yowels or consonants.
- 4. ETIAM, QUOQUE, ADEO, and the like, are sometimes associated with et. atque, ac, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quŏque follows the word which it connects: is quŏque, he also. Etiam, also, further, even, is more comprehensive than quŏque and often adds a new circumstance.
- 5. Correlatives.—Sometimes two copulatives are used: ct (que)—ct (que), tum—tum, quum—tum, both—and; but quum—tum gives prominence to the second word or clause: non sölum (non mödo, or non tantum)—sed čtiam (vīrum čtiam), not only—but also; něque (nec)—něque (nec), neither—nor; něque (nec)—et (que), not—but (and); et—něque (nec), (both)—and not.
- 6. Omitted.—Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is generally expressed, though sometimes omitted, especially between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or

omitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the conjunction is omitted between the others: pax et tranquillitas ϵt concordia, or pax, tranquillitas, concordia, or pax, tranquillitas, concordiaque.

Et is often omitted between conditional clauses, except before non.

II. Disjunctive Conjunctions denote separation:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault, or his own. Liv. Duabus tribusve horis, in two or three hours. Cic.

1. List. See 310. 2.

2. Aut, vel., ve.—Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than rel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut vērum aut falsum, either true or false. Vel implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally corrective and is often followed by potius. ètiam or dicam: laudātur vel ètiam àmātur, he is praised, or even (rather) loved. It sometimes means even and sometimes for example. Velut often means for example. Ve for vel is appended as an enclitic.

In negative clauses aut and re often continue the negation: non honor aut virtus, neither (not) honor nor virtue.

Sive (si-re) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object; Pallas sive Minerva, Pallas or Minerva (another name of the same goddess).

III. Adversative Conjunctions denote opposition or contrast:

Căpio me esse clămentum, sed me inertiae condemno, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cic.

1. List. See \$10. 3.

2. DIFFERENCE IN FORCE.—Sed and vērum mark a direct opposition; autem and vēro only a transition; at emphasizes the opposition; atqui often introduces an objection; cētērum, but still, as to the rest; tāmen, yet.

3. Compounds of tamen are: attamen, sedtamen, veruntamen, but yet.

4. AUTEM and VERO follow the words which they connect: hic autem, hic viro, but this one. They are often omitted, especially before non. They are admissible with qui only when it is followed by its antecedent.

IV. Illative Conjunctions denote inference:

In umbra igitur pugnābimus, We shall therefore fight in the shade. Cic.

1. List. See 310. 4.

2. OTHER WORDS.—Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with conjunctions, are also illatives: eo, ideo, ideirco, proptèrea, quamobrem, quapropter, quare, quoeirca.

3. Igitth.—This generally follows the word which it connects: hie 'igitur, this one therefore. After a digression 'igitur, sed, sed tamen, vērum, vērum tamen, etc., are often used to resume an interrupted thought or construction. They may often be rendered Isay: Sed si quis; if any one, I say.

V. Causal Conjunctions denote cause:

Difficile est consilium: sum čnim solus, Counsel is difficult, for I am alone. Cic. Etčnim jus ămant, For they love the right. Cic.

1. List. See 310. 5.

- 2. ETENIM and NAMQUE denote a closer connection than enim and nam.
- 3. ENIM follows its word.
- 588. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions (309. II.). They comprise eight classes.

I. Temporal Conjunctions denote time:

Pāruit quum něcesse črat, He obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum čgo in Sieilia sum, while I am in Sicily. Cic. See also 311. 1; 521-523.

1. Drw added to a negative means yet; nondum, not yet; vixdum, searcely yet.

II. Comparative Conjunctions denote comparison:

Ut optasti, ita est, It is as you desired. Cic. Vélut si adesset, as if he were present. Caes. See also 311. 2; 503, 506.

1. Correlatives are often used: Tam—quam, as, so—as, as much as; tam—quam quod maxime, as much as possible; non minus—quam, not less than; non magis—quam, not more than.

Tan-quam and ut—ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with the comparative: ut maxime—ita maxime, the more—the more,

III. Conditional Conjunctions denote condition:

Si peccāvi, ignosce, If I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nīsi est concilium domi, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311. 3; 503. 507.

1. Nisi, if not, in negative sentences often means except, and nisi quod, except that, may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nisi may mean than. Nihil allud nisi = nothing further (more, except); nihil allud quam = nothing else (other than).

IV. Concessive Conjunctions denote concession:

Quamquam intelligunt, though they understand. Cic. Etsi nihil habeat, although he has nothing. Cic. See also 311. 4; 515. 516.

V. Final Conjunctions denote purpose:

Esse ŏportet, ut vīvas, It is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See also 311. 5; 489-499.

VI. Consecutive Conjunctions denote consequence or result:

Atticus ita vixit, ut Athēniensībus esset cārissīmus, Atticus so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. See also 311. 6; 489-499.

VII. Causal Conjunctions denote cause:

Quae quum Ita sint, Since these things are so. Cic. See also 311.7; 517.518.

VIII. Interrogative Conjunctions or Particles denote inquiry or question:

Quaesièras, nonne pùtārem, You had asked whether I did not think. Cic. See also 311. 8; 346. II., 525. 526.

IV. Interjections.

- 589. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as *eheu*, alas! and sometimes with certain cases of nouns. See 381 and 381. 3.
- 590. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections. Thus:

Pax (peace), be still! misĕrum, misĕrābile, sad, lamentable! ōro, pray! ăge, ăgite, come, well! mehercules, by Hercules! per deum fidem, in the name of the gods! sōdes = si audes (for audies), if you will hear!

CHAPTER VII.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

591. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body. The enclosed numerals refer to the various articles in the work where the several topics are more fully discussed.

NOUNS.

AGREEMENT.

I. A PREDICATE NOUN denoting the same person or thing as its Subject, agrees with it in CASE (362):

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv.

II. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in case (363): Chullius rex mŏrĭtur, Cluilius the king dies. Liv.

NOMINATIVE.

III. The Subject of a Finite verb is put in the Nominative (367):

Servius regnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv.

VOCATIVE.

IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369):

Perge, Laeli, Proceed, Laelius. Cic.

ACCUSATIVE.

V. The DIRECT OBJECT of an action is put in the Accusative (371):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made the world. Cic.

VI. Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hämile
ärem impëratörem fecërunt, $\mathit{They\ made\ Hamilear\ commander.}$ Nep.

VII. Some verbs of ASKING, DEMANDING, TEACHING, and CONCEALING, admit two Accusatives in the Active, and one in the Passive (374):

Me sententiam rogāvit, He asked me my opinion. Cic.

VIII. DURATION OF TIME AND EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the Accusative (378):

Septem et trīginta regnāvit annos, He reigned thirty-seven years. Liv. Quinque millia passuum ambūlāre, to walk five miles. Cic.

IX. The Name of a Town used as the Limit of motion is put in the Accusative (379):

Nuntius Romam redit, The messenger returns to Rome. Liv.

X. A Verb or Adjective may take an Adverbial Accusative to define its application (380):

Căpīta vēlāmur, $We\ have\ our\ heads\ veiled.$ Virg. Nūbe hǔměros ămictus, $with\ his\ shoulders\ enveloped\ in\ a\ cloud.$ Hor.

XI. The Accusative, either with or without an Interjection, may be used in Exclamations (381):

Heu me misërum, Ah me unhappy! Cic.

DATIVE.

XII. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative (384):

Tempori cēdit, He yields to the time. Cic.

Dative of Advantage and Disadvantage (385). Dative with Compounds (386). Dative of Possessor (387). Dative of Apparent Agent (388). Ethical Dative (389).

XIII. Two Datives—the object to which and the object for which—occur with a few verbs (390):

Mălo est hominibus ăvāritia, Avarice is (for) an evil to men. Cic.

XIV. With Adjectives the object to which the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391):

Omnibus eārum est, It is dear to all. Cie.

XV. A few Derivative Nouns and Adverbs take the Dative after the analogy of their primitives (392):

Obtempěrātio lēgībus, obedience to the laws. Cic. Congruenter nātūrae, agrceably to nature. Cic.

GENITIVE.

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (395):

Cătonis orationes, Cato's orations. Cic.

XVII. Many Adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (399):

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic.

XVIII. A Predicate Noun denoting a different person or thing from its Subject, is put in the Genitive (401):

Omnia hostium erant, All things belonged to (were of) the enemy. Liv.

XIX. The Genitive is used (406),

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserere laborum, pity the labors. Virg.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:

Měminit praetěritorum, He remembers the past. Cie.

III. With refert and interest:

Interest omnium, It is the interest of all. Cic.

XX. A few verbs take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing (410):

I. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing:

Te ămīcitiae commonefacit, He reminds you of friendship. Cic.

II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting:

Viros scělěris arguis, You accuse men of crime. Cic.

III. Miseret, Poenitet, Pudet, Taedet, and Piget:

Eōrum nos mĭsĕret, We pity them. Cic.

For the Genitive of Place, see Rule XXVI.

ABLATIVE.

XXI. Cause, Manner, and Means are denoted by the Ablative (414):

Utilitate laudatur, It is praised because of its usefulness. Cic.

XXII. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative (416):

Vendidit auro patriam, He sold his country for gold. Virg.

XXIII. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative (417):

Nihil est ămābĭlius virtūte, Nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic.

XXIV. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative (418):

Uno die longior, longer by one day. Cic.

XXV. The Ablative is used (419),

I. With $\bar{u}tor,$ fruor, fungor, pŏtior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimis rebus fruimur, We enjoy very many things. Cic.

II. With fido, confido, nitor, innitor:

Sălus vērītāte nītītur, Safety rests upon truth. Cic.

III. With Verbs and Adjectives of Plenty and Want:

Non ĕgeo mĕdĭcīna, I do not necd a remedy. Cic.

IV. With dignus, indignus, contentus, and frētus: Digni sunt ămīcitia, They are worthy of friendship. Cic.

V. With ŏpus and ūsus:

Auctoritate tua nobis opus est, We need your authority. Cic.

XXVI. I. The PLACE IN WHICH and the PLACE FROM WHICH are generally denoted by the Ablative with a Preposition. But

II. NAMES OF TOWNS drop the Preposition, and in the Singular of the First and Second declensions designate the PLACE IN WHICH by the Genitive (421):

In Itălia fuit, He was in Italy. Nep. Ex Africa, from Africa. Liv. Athēnis fuit, He was at Athens. Cic. Romae fuit, He was at Rome. Cic.

XXVII. Source and Separation are denoted by the Ablative, generally with a preposition (425):

Oriundi ab Săbīnis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Caedem a võbis dēpello, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic.

XXVIII. The Time of an Action is denoted by the Ablative (426):

Octogēsimo anno est mortuus, He died in his eightieth year. Cic.

XXIX. The Ablative with an adjective may be used to characterize a person or thing (428):

Summa virtūte ădolescens, a youth of the highest virtue. Caes.

XXX. The Ablative may be used with a word to define its application (429):

Nomı̆ne, non pŏtestāte fuit rex, \emph{He} was \emph{king} in name, not in power. Nep.

XXXI. The Ablative is used as the Case Absolute (431):

Servio regnante, in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cic.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

XXXII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with Prepositions (432):

Ad ămīcum, to a friend. Cic. In Italia, in Italy. Nep.

ADJECTIVES.

XXXIII. An Adjective agrees with its Noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE (438):

Fortuna caeca est, Fortune is blind. Cic.

PRONOUNS.

XXXIV. A Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in GENDER, NUMBER, and PERSON (445):

Animal, quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood. Cic.

VERBS.

AGREEMENT.

* XXXV. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in NUMBER and PERSON (460):

Ego rēges ejēci, I have banished kings. Cic.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

XXXVI. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made the world. Cic.

SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES.

XXXVII. Principal tenses depend upon Principal tenses: Historical, upon Historical (480):

Nititur ut vincat, He strives to conquer. Cic. Quaesiéras nonne putarem, You had asked whether I did not think. Cic.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

XXXVIII. The Potential Subjunctive represents the action not as real, but as possible (485):

Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire. Cic.

XXXIX. The Subjunctive of Desire represents the action not as real, but as desired (487):

Văleant cives, May the citizens be well. Cic.

XL. The Subjunctive of Purpose or Result is used (489),

I. With ut, ne, quo, quin, quōminus:

Enītitur ut vincat, He strives that he may conquer. Cic.

II. With qui = ut is, ut ĕgo, tu, etc.:

Missi sunt, qui $(ut\ ii)$ consulérent Apollinem, They were sent to consult Apollo. Nep.

XLI. The Subjunctive of Condition is used (503),

I. With dum, modo, dummodo:

Mŏdo permăneat industria, if only industry remains. Cic.

II. With ac si, ut si, quăsi, quam si, tanquam, tanquam si, vělut, vělut si:

Vělut si ădesset, as if he were present. Caes.

III. Sometimes with si, nisi, ni, sin, qui = si is, si quis: Si vělim nůměrāre, if I should wish to recount. Cic.

XLII. The Subjunctive of Concession is used (515),

I. With licet, quamvis, quantumvis, ut, ne, quum, although: Licet irrideat, though he may deride. Cic.

II. With qui = quum (licet) is, quum ego, etc., though he:

Absolvite Verrem, qui (quum is) făteatur, Acquit Verres, though he confesses. Cic.

III. Generally with etsi, tămetsi, ĕtiamsi:

Etsi optimum sit, even if (though) it be most excellent. Cic.

XLIII. The Subjunctive of Cause or Reason is used (517),

I. With quum (cum), since; qui = quum is, etc.

Quum vîta mětus plēna sit, since life is full of fear. Cic.

II. With quod, quia, quoniam, quando, to introduce a reason on another's authority:

Quod corrumpéret juventutem, because (on the ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint.

XLIV. The SUBJUNCTIVE OF TIME with the accessory notion of Cause or Purpose is used (521),

I. With dum, donec, quoad, until:

Exspectas, dum dieat, You are waiting till he speaks, i. c., that he may speak. Cic.

II. With antequam, priusquam, before:

Antequam de re publica dicam, before I (can) speak of the republic. Cic.

XLV. The Subjunctive is used in Indirect Questions (525):

Quid dies férat, incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cie.

XLVI. The Subjunctive by Attraction is often used in clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive (527):

Věrcor, ne, dum minuëre vělim lăborem, augeam, I fear I shall increase the labor, while I wish to diminish it. Cic.

XLVII. The Subjunctive is generally used in the Interrogative, Imperative, and Subordinate clauses of the Oratio Obliqua (529):

Respondit, cur věnīret, He replied, why did he come. Caes. Scrībit Lăbiëno věniat, He writes to Labienus to come. Caes.

IMPERATIVE.

XLVIII. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties (535):

Justitiam cole, Practise justice. Cic.

INFINITIVE.

XLIX. The Subject of an Infinitive is put in the Accusative (545):

Sentīmus călēre ignem, We perceive that fire is hot. Cic.

Participles, Gerunds, and Supines.

Participles are construed as adjectives (575), Gerunds and Supines as nouns (559, 567). But

L. The Supine in *um* is used after verbs of motion to express PURPOSE (569):

Vēnērunt res repetītum, They came to demand restitution. Liv.

PARTICLES.

LI. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (582):

Săpientes feliciter vivunt, The wise live happily. Cic.

- 1. For Prepositions, see Rule XXXII.
- 2. Conjunctions are mere connectives. See 587 and 588.
- Interjections are expressions of emotion or mere marks of address.
 Sec 589.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.

SECTION I.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

592. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

I. GENERAL RULES.

593. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sol öriens diem conficit, The sun rising makes the day. Cic. Animus aeger semper errat, A diseased mind always errs. Cic. Miltiades Athenas libéravit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep.

- 594. Emphasis and euphony often affect the arrangement of words:
- I. Beginning.—Any word, except the subject, may be made *emphatic* by being placed at the beginning of the sentence:

Silent lēges inter arma, Laws are silent in war. Cic. Numitori Remus dēdītur, Remus is delivered to Numitor. Liv. Igni ager vastābātur, The field was ravaged with fire. Sall.

II. End.—Any word, except the predicate, may be rendered *emphatic* by being placed at the end of the sentence:

Nöbis non sătisfăcit ipse Dēmosthěnes, Even Demosthenes does not satisfy us. Cic. Consălătum pětīvit nunquam, He never sought the consulship. Cic. Exsistit quaedam quaestio subdifficilis, There arises a question somewhat difficult. Cic.

III. Separation.—Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its genitive, are sometimes made *emphatic* by separation:

Objurgătiones nonnunquam incidunt necessariae, Sometimes necessary reproofs occur. Cic. JustItiae fungătur officiis, Let him discharge the duties of justice. Cic.

+ 595. Contrasted Groups.—When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

Frägile corpus animus sempiternus movet, The imperishable soul moves the perishable body. Cic.

596. Kindred Words.—Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad senem senex de senectute scripsi, I, an old man, wrote to an old man on the subject of old age. Cic. Inter se aliis alii prosunt, They mutually benefit each other. Cic.

- 597. Words with a common Relation.—A word which has a common relation to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed,
 - I. Generally before or after both:

Pācis et artes et glūria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Belli pācisque artes, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

A Genitive or Adjective following two nouns may qualify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Haec percunctatio ac denuntiatio belli, this inquiry and this declaration of

war. Liv.

II. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:

Hŏnōris certāmen et giōriae, a struggle for honor and glory. Cic. Agri omnes et măria, all lands and seas. Cic.

II. SPECIAL RULES.

598. Modifiers of Nouns.—The modifiers of a noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:

Pŏpŭlus Rōmānus dēcrēvit, The Roman people decreed. Cic. Hērŏdŏtus, păter històriae, Herodotus, the father of history. Cic. Liber de officiis, the book on duties. Cic.

1. Noun.—A noun as modifier of another noun is generally an appositive, a genitive, or a case with a preposition, as in the examples.

2. With Emphasis.—Modifiers when emphatic are placed before their nouns:

Tuscus ăger Rūmāno adjăcet, The Tuscan territory borders on the Roman. Liv. Cătônis orationes, Cato's orations. Cic.

3. Adjective and Genitive.—When a noun is modified both by an adjective and by a genitive, the usual order is, adjective—genitive—noun:

Magna cīvium pēnūria, a great scarcity of citizens. Cic.

599. Modifiers of Adjectives.—The modifiers of the adjective generally precede it, but, if not adverbs, they may follow it:

Făcile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Omni netāti commūnis, common to every age. Cic. Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic.

 $600.\ Modifiers$ of Verbs.—The modifiers of the verb generally precede it :

Glöria virtütem sequitur, Glory follows virtue. Cic. Mundus deo püret, The world is subject to God. Cic. Vehementer dixit, He spoke vehemently. Cic. Glöria dücitur, He is led by glory. Cic.

1. After the Verb.—When the verb is placed for the sake of emphasis at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow. See first example under 594. I.

2. Emphasis.—An emphatic modifier may of course stand at the begin-

ning or at the end of the sentence (594):

Făcillime cognoscuntur ădŏlescentes, Most easily are the young men recognized. Cic.

3. Two or more Modifiers.—Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and euphony may require:

Rex Scythis bellum intulit, The king waged war against the Scythians. Nep. Mors propter brevitatem vitae nunquam longe abest, Death is never

far distant, in consequence of the shortness of life. Cic.

601. Modifiers of Adverbs.—The modifiers of the adverb generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:

Valde vehementer dixit, He spoke very vehemently. Cic. Congruenter naturae vivit, He lives agreeably to nature. Cic.

- 602. Special Words.—Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus,
 - I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun:

Custos hujus urbis, the guardian of this city. Cic.

1. $I\!R\!I\!e$ in the sense of well-known (450.5) generally follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic.

2. Quisque, the indefinite pronoun, follows some other word:

Justitia suum euique tribuit, Justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic.

II. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tenus and versus follow their cases:

In Asiam profugit, He fled into Asia. Cic. Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov.

1. AFTER A PRONOUN.—The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Res qua de agitur, the subject of which we are treating. Cic. Italiam contra, over against Italy. Virg.

2. CUM APPENDED .- See 184. 6 and 187. 2.

3. Intervening Words.—Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Acc. of the object adjured, or by some other word; and sometimes the verb ore is omitted:

Post Alexandri magni mortem, after the death of Alexander the Great. Cic. Ad bone vivendum, for living well. Cic. Per te doos oro, I pray you in the name of the gods. Ter. Per ego vos doos = per doos ego vos oro (oro understood). I pray you in the name of the gods. Curt.

III. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally

stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, ĕnim, quĭdem, quĭque, vēro, and generally ĭgitur, follow some other word:

Si peccāvi, ignosce, If I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Ii qui săpăriores sunt, those who are superior. Cic. Ipse autem omnia vădēbat, But he himself saw all things. Cic.

1. EMPHATIC WORDS and RELATIVES often precede the conjunction.

Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Nep. Quae quum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic.

2. NE-QUIDEM takes the emphatic word or words between the two parts:

Ne in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.

3. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex me quidem nihil audiet, He will hear nothing from me. Cic.

4. Que, re, ne, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word, but if that word is a monosyllable preposition, they are often appended to the next word: ad plebenre, for adre, etc., or to the people; in föröque = inque föro, and in the forum. Apud quosque, and before whom, occurs for euphony.

IV. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word, but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it generally stands at the beginning of the clause:

Hac villa cărere non possunt, They are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Non fuit Jūpiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Cic.

V. Inquam, sometimes Aio, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brūtus, quod dīcam, Nothing which I shall state, said Brutus. Cic.

VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Laeli, Proceed, Laelius. Cic.

SECTION II.

ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

I. IN COMPLEX SENTENCES.

603. Subject or Predicate.—A clause used as the subject of a complex sentence (357) generally stands at the beginning of the sentence, and a clause used as the predicate at the end:

Quid dies férat incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Exitus fuit örätiönis: sibi nullam cum his ämicitiam esse, The close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men. Caes.

1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence. See 593.

Emphasis and cuphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clauses as of words. Sec 594.

- 604. Subordinate Elements.—Clauses used as the subordinate elements of complex sentences, admit three different arrangements:
- I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Hostes, ŭbi prīmum nostros ĕquǐtes conspexērunt, cĕlĕrǐter nostros perturbāvērunt, The enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to route. Caes. Sententia, quae tūtissĭma vĭdēbātur, vīcit, The opinion which seemed the safest prevailed. Liv.

II. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Quum quiescunt, probant, While they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Quālis sit ănimus, ănimus nescit, The soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Si haec cīvītas est, cīvis sum ego, If this is a state I am a citizen. Cic.

This arrangement is especially common when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence temporal, conditional, and concessive clauses often precede the principal clause. Hence also, in sentences composed of correlative clauses with is-qui, tallis-qualis, tantus-quants, tum-quum, tu-ut, etc., the relative member, i. e., the clause with qui, qualis, quantus, quum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Enititur ut vincat, He strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, The sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

This arrangement is common when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence or is explanatory of the principal clause. Hence clauses of *Purpose* and *Result* generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples. See also examples under articles 489-499.

605. LATIN PERIOD.—A complex sentence in which the subordinate clause is inserted within the principal clause, as under I., is called a Period in the strict sense of the word.

In a freer sense the same term is also applied to any sentence in which the clauses are so arranged as not to make complete sense before the end of the sentence. In this sense the examples under II. are periods.

II. IN COMPOUND SENTENCES.

606. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (587) generally follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, The sun descends and the mountains are shaded. Virg. Gyges a nullo videbātur, ipse autem omnia videbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

PART FOURTH.

PROSODY.

607. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification,

CHAPTER I.

QUANTITY.

- 608. The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity. Syllables are accordingly characterized as *long*, *short*, or *common*.
- 609. The quantity of syllables is determined by poetic usage. But this usage conforms in many cases to general laws, while in other cases it seems somewhat arbitrary.
- Syllables whose quantity conforms to known rules are said to be long or short by rule.

2. Syllables whose quantity does not conform to known rules are said to

be long or short by authority.

3. The rules for quantity are either general, i. e., applicable to most syllables, or special, i. e., applicable to particular syllables.

SECTION I.

GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

610. Rule I.—Diphthongs and Contracted syllables are LONG:

Haec, coena, aura ; ălīus for ăliius, cōgo for coĭgo, occīdo for occaedo, nīl for nihil.

- 1. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praedatus, praedustus.
- 2. Ua, ue, ui, uo, and uu, are not strictly diphthongs, and accordingly do not come under this rule.

¹ Sometimes long and sometimes short.

611. Rule II.—A vowel is long by position before j, x, z, or any two consonants:

Mājor, rēxi, gāza, mēnsa, servus.

- 1. But one of the consonants at least must belong to the same word as the vowel: $\bar{a}b\ r\bar{a}pe$, $p\bar{c}r\ saxa$.
- 1) A final vowel is not usually affected by consonants at the beginning of the following word, except before sc, sp, sq, and st, where a short vowel is rare.
- 2) H and U must never be treated as consonants under this rule, except in rare instances where u is so used by Synaeresis. See 669. II. .
- 2. Before a mute followed by L or R, a vowel naturally short becomes common : $d\tilde{a}plex$, $\tilde{a}gri$, $p\tilde{a}tres$.
- 1) In Greek words a vowel is also common before a mute with M or N: $T\`{e}cmessa$, $e\~{g}cnus$.
- 2) A mute at the end of the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part makes the preceding vowel long by position: $\bar{a}b\text{-}rumpo$, $\bar{o}b\text{-}r\check{o}qo$.
- 3) A vowel naturally long, of course, remains long before a Mute and Liquid: āeer, āeris.
- Compounds of j\u00e4gum retain the short vowel before j: b\u00e4j\u00e4gus, quadr\u00e4j\u00e4gus.

612. Rule III.—A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short by position:

Pĭus, pĭae, dŏcĕo, trăho.

No account is taken of the breathing \hbar ; hence a in traho is treated as a vowel before another vowel.

Exceptions.—The following are long before a vowel:

- 1. A,—(1) in the genitive ending \vec{a}_i of Dec. I.: aulai,—(2) in proper names in $\vec{a}ius$: $C\vec{a}ius$ (Cajus),—(3) before ia, ie, io, iu, in the verb aio.
- E,—(1) in the ending \(\bar{e}i\) of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel: \(di\bar{e}i\); and sometimes in \(fid\tildi\), \(rii\), \(sp\bar{e}i\),—(2) in proper names in \(\bar{e}ius: Pomp\bar{e}ius,—(3)\) in \(\bar{e}heu\).
- 3. $\mathbf{I}_{,}$ —(1) in the verb fio, when not followed by er: fiam, fibam, but fieri,—(2) in the genitive alius. In other genitives i in ius is common in poetry, though long in prose, but the i in alterius is short,—(3) in dius, a, um, for divus, a, um,—(4) sometimes in Diana.
 - 4. O,—is common in ble.

¹ Strictly speaking, the syllable, and not the vowel, is lengthened, but the language of convenience refers the quantity of the syllable to the vowel.

² Qu, gu, and su, when u has the sound of w, are treated as single consonants.

5. In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, because long in the original: āer, Aenēas, Brīsēis, Měnēlāus, Trões.

This often occurs in proper names in—ēa, īa, ēus, īus, āon, ton, āis, ōis, ōius: Mēdēa, Alexandrīa, Pēnēus, Dārīus, Orīon.

SECTION II.

SPECIAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

I. QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

I. Monosyllables.

613. Rule IV.—Monosyllables are long:

ā, dā, tē, sē, dē, sī, quī, dō, prō, tū, dōs, pēs, sīs, bōs, sūs, pār, sōl.

Exceptions .- The following are short:

1. Enclitics: quě, vě, ně, cě, tě, psě, ptě.

2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, t: ab, ad, fel, mel, at, et; except sal, sol.

3. An, bis, cis, cor, es, fuc, fer, in, is, nec, os (ossis), per, ter, quu (plur. indef.), quis, vir; probably also vus (vadis), and sometimes hic and hoc as Nom. or Acc. forms.

II. Polysyllables.

1. FINAL VOWELS.

614. Rule V.—In words of more than one syllable, the endings a, e, and y are short; i and u, long; o, common:

Viă, măriă, măre, misy; mări, audi, fructu, cornu; ămo, sermo.

615. A final is short: mensă, templă, bonă.

EXCEPTIONS .- A final is long,

1. In the Ablative: mensā, bonā, illā.

2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in as (rarely es): Aenēā, Pallā.

3. In Verbs and Indeclinable words: ămā, cūrā; circā, juxtā, anteā, frustrā. Except ĭtā, quiă, ejā, and pūtā used adverbially.

616. **E** final is short: servě, urbě, rēgě.

Exceptions.—Efinal is long,

 In Dec. I. and V.: ěpitŏmē, rē, diē. Hence in the compounds—hŏdiē, prīdiē, postrīdiē, quārē.

2. In Greek plurals of Dec. III.: Tempē, mělē.

- 3. In the Sing, Imperative Act. of Conj. II.: $m\check{o}n\check{e},\ d\check{o}c\check{e}$. But e is sometimes short in $c\check{a}v\check{e}$.
- 4. In fêrê, fermê, ohê, and in Adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: doctê, rectê. Except bênê, mûlê, infernê, internê, sûpernê.
 - 617. Y final is short: misy, moly, coty.

Exceptions.—Contracted endings are, of course, long: misj = misyi.

618. I final is long: servī, bonī, audī.

Exceptions .- I final is,

1. Common in mihž, třbž, sřbž, řbž, ŭbž. But

- Observe compounds ibidem, ibique, übique, übinam, übivis, übicunque, necübi, sicübi.
- 2. Short,—(1) in nisi, quasi, cui (when a dissyllable),—(2) in the Greek ending si of Dat. and Abl. Plur.: Troasi,—(3) in the Dat. and Voc. Sing., which end short in the Greek: Alexi, Păridi.

Uti follows the rule, but not the compounds, utinam, utique, sīcuti.

619. U final is long: fructū, cornū, dictū.

Exceptions.—Indu for in, and nenu for non.

620. O final is common: amo, sermo, virgo.

Exceptions .- O final is,

1. Long,—(1) in Datives and Ablatives: servō, illō, quō,—(2) in Greek words, when it represents a long Greek vowel: \(\tilde{e}eh\bar{o}, Arg\bar{o},—(3)\) in Adverbs: \(fals\bar{o}, mult\bar{o}, erg\bar{o}, quand\bar{o}, omn\bar{o}n\bar{o};\) except those mentioned under 2 below.

2. Short in duo, ego, octo, and the adverbs cito, illico, immo, modo, and

its compounds, dummodo, quomodo, etc.

2. FINAL SYLLABLES IN MUTES OR LIQUIDS,-

C, D, L, M, N, R, T.

621. Rele VI.—In words of more than one syllable,

Final syllables in c are long;

Final syllables in d, l, m, n, r, t, are short:

ālēc, illūc; illūd, consŭl, ăměm, carměn, ămŏr, căpūt.

Exceptions.—The following occur,

- Dōnĕc and liēn.
- M final with the preceding vowel is generally elided before a vowel.
 See 669. I.

- 3. In Greek words,—(1) en is long; often also an, in, on, yn: Hymēn, Anchīsēn, Tītān, Delphīn, Actaeōn, Phorcīn,—(2) er is long in aēr, aethēr, crātēr, and a few other words with long ending in the original.
- 4. This rule does not, of course, apply to syllables long by previous rules.

3. FINAL SYLLABLES IN S.

622. Rule VII.—In words of more than one syllable, the endings as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:

ămās, mensās, monēs, nūbēs, hos, servos; avīs, urbīs, bonus, servus, chlamys.

623. As final is long: Aeneas, bonas, illas.

Exceptions .- As final is short,

- 1. In anas and in a few Greek nouns in as: Arcas, lampas.
- 2. In Greek Accusatives of Dec. III.: Arcădăs, hērōās.

624. Es final is long: nūbēs, monēs.

Exceptions -- Es final is short,

- 1. In Nominatives Singular of Dec. III., which increase short in the Gen.: mīlēs (Itis), obsēs (Idis), interprēs (ĕtis). Except ŭbiēs, ăriēs, păriēs, Cērēs, and compounds of pēs; as bīpēs, trīpēs, etc.
 - 2. In pěněs and the compounds of ěs; as ăděs, pötěs.
- 3. In Greek words,—(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Gen.: Arcādēs, Troādes,—(2) in a few neuters in es: Hippŏměnēs,—(3) in a few Vocatives singular: Dēmosthěnēs.

625. Os final is long: custos, viros.

Exceptions .- Os final is short,

1. In compos, impos, exos.

2. In Greek words with the ending short in the Greek: Delös, melős.

626. Is final is short: avis, canis.

Exceptions.—Is final is long,

In Plural Cases: mensīs, servīs, vöbīs.

Hence forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.

- 2. In Nominatives of Dec. III., increasing long in the Gen. : Quiris (ītis), $\mathit{Sălămīs}$ (īnis).
 - 3. In the Sing. Pres. Indic. Act. of Conj. IV.: audīs.

Māvīs, quīvīs, ŭtervīs follow the quantity of vīs.

- 4. In the Sing. Pres. Subjunct. Act.: possīs, vēlīs, nolīs, mālīs.
- 5. Sometimes in the Sing. of the Fut. Perf. and of the Perf. Subj.: ămā-vērīs, dŏeuērīs.

627. Us final is short: servus, bonus.

EXCEPTIONS .- Us final is long,

1. In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Gen.: $virt\bar{u}s$ ($\bar{u}tis$), $tell\bar{u}s$ ($\bar{u}ris$).

But pălus (u short) occurs in Horace. Ars P. 65.

2. In Dec. IV., in the Gen. Sing., and in the Nom. Acc. and Voc. Plur.: $fruct\bar{u}s$.

In Greek words ending long in the original: Panthūs, Sapphūs, tripūs.
 But we have Oedīpūs and pēlÿpūs.

628. Ys final is short: chlămys, chelys.

Exceptions.—Contracted endings are of course long: $Erynn\tilde{y}s$ for Erynnyss.

II. QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS.

629. A word is said to *increase* in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the nominative singular, and to have as many *increments of declension* as it has additional syllables: sermo, sermonis, sermonibus.

Sermönis, having one syllable more than sermo, has one increment, while serminibus has two increments.

630. A verb is said to *increase* in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active, and to have as many *increments of conjugation* as it has additional syllables: āmās, āmātis, āmābātis.

Amātis has one increment, āmābātis two.

631. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult, if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the *first* increment, and those following this are called successively the second, third, and fourth increments. Thus

In ser-mon-i-bus, the first increment is mon, the second i; and in mon-u-e-ra-mus, the first is u, the second e, the third ra.

I. Increments of Declension.

632. Rule VIII.—In the Increments of Declension, a and o are long; e, i, u, and y, short:

aetas, aetātis, aetātībus; sermo, sermonis; puer, pueri, puerorum;

fulgur, fulgŭris; chlămys, chlamydis; bŏnus, bonārum, bonōrum; ille, illārum, illōrum; mĭser, misĕri; supplex, supplicis; sătur, satŭri.

Vowels long or short by position are of course excepted.

633. A in the increments of declension is long: pax, pācis; bōnus, bonārum; duo, duābūs.

Exceptions.—A is short in the first increment,

- Of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis; Caesar, Caesaris. Except Car and Nar.
 - 2. Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: daps, dăpis; Arabs, Arăbis.
 - 3. Of Greek nouns in a and as: poēma, poēmatis; Pallas, Palladis.
- 4. Of the following:—(1) baccar, hēpar, jūbar, lar, nectar, par and its compounds,—(2) ănas, mas, vas (vădis),—(3) sal, fax, and a few rare Greek words in ax.
- 634. O in the increments of declension is long: honor, honoris; bonus, bonorum; duo, duobus.

Exceptions.— O is short in the first increment,

- 1. Of Neuters: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis. Except os (ūris), ădor (adoris), and comparatives.
- 2. Of words in s preceded by a consonant; inops, inopis. Except Cyclops and hydrops.
- 3. Of arbor, bos, lépus,—compos, impos, memor, immemor,—Allobrox, Cappadox, praecox.
 - 4. Of most Patrials: Măcedo, Macedonis.
- 5. Of many Greek nouns,—(1) those in or: rhētor, Hector,—(2) many in o and on increasing short in Greek: aēdon, aedŏnis,—(3) in Greek compounds in pus: tripus (ŏdis), Oedipus.
- 635. **E** in the increments of declension is short: puer, pueri; liber, liberi.

Exceptions.—E is long in the first increment,

- Of Decl. V., except in the forms fidéi, réi, and spéi; as diei, dièrum, dièbus, rèbus.
- 2. Of nouns in ēn, mostly Greek: lien, lienis; Strēn, Strēnis. So Anio, Anienis.
- 3. Of Celtiber, Iber, ver,—hēres, lŏcŭples, merces, quies, inquies, rĕquies, plebs,—lex, rex, ālec, ālex, vervex.
- 4. Of a few Greek words in es and er, except aer and aether; as lebes, lebetis; crâter, crateris.
- 636. I in the increments of declension is short: miles, militis, militibus; anceps, ancipitis.

Exceptions.—I is long in the first increment,

Of most words in ix: rādix, radīcis; fēlix, filīcis.

But short in: appendix, callx, Cilix, fillx, fornix, nix, pix, sallx, strix, and a few others, chiefly proper names.

- 2. Of dis, glis, lis, vis, Quiris, Samnis.
- 3. Of delphin and a few rare Greek words.
- 4. For quantity of the ending ius, see 612. 3.
- 637. **U** in the increments of declension is short: dux, ducis; arcus, arcubus; satur, saturi.

EXCEPTIONS.— U is long in the first increment,

- 1. Of nouns in us with the genitive in uris, utis, udis: jus, jūris; sălus, salūtis; pălus, palūdis. Except intercus, Līgus, pēcus.
 - 2. Of fur, frux, lux, plus, Pollux.
- 638. **Y** in the increments of declension is short: *chlāmys*, *chlamydis*.

EXCEPTIONS.—This increment occurs only in Greek words, and is long in those in yn, $\overline{y}nis$, and in a few others.

II. Increments of Conjugation.

639. Rule IX.—In the Increments of Conjugation (630), a, e, and o are long; i and u short:

ămāmus, amēmus, amātote, regimus, sumus.

- 1. In ascertaining the increments of the irregular verbs, fêro, vôlo, and their compounds, the full form of the second person, fêris, volis, etc., must be used. Thus in fêrêbam and vôlêbam, the increments are re and le.
- In ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (254), the reduplication is not counted. Thus dedimus has but one increment di.

640. A in the increments of conjugation is long: $\tilde{a}m\tilde{a}re$.

EXCEPTIONS.—A is short in the first increment of do: dăre, dăbam, eircumdăbam.

641. **E** in the increments of conjugation is long: $m\tilde{o}$ - $n\tilde{e}re$.

Exceptions.—E is short before \mathbf{r} ,

- 1. In the tenses in ram, rim, ro: ămăveram, amaverim, amavero; rexerat, rexerit.
- 2. In first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conj. III.: regere, regerem, regerer.
 - 3. In the Fut. ending beris, bere: amāberis, or -ere, moneberis.
- 4. Rarely in the Perf. ending erunt: staterunt for steterunt. See 235, also Systole, 669. IV.
- 642. **O** in the increments of conjugation is long without exception: mŏnētōte, rĕgitōte.

643. I in the increments of conjugation is short: regitis, reximus.

Exceptions.-I is long, except before a vowel,

1. In the first increment of Conj. IV., except imus of the Perf.: audire,

audīvi, audītum; sentio, sentīmus, sensīmus (perf.).

- 2. In Conj. III. in the first increment of perfects and supines in **īvi** and **ītum** (276. III.) and of the parts derived from them (except *ĭmus* of Perf.: trīvīmus): cupīvi, cupīvērat, cupītus; pētīvi, petītus; cupessīvi, capessītūrus. Gāvīsus from gaudeo follows the same analogy.
- 3. In the endings Imus and Itis of Pres. Subj.: sīmus, sītis; relīmus, relītis (239.3).

 In nolite, nolito, nolitote, and in the different persons of ibam, ibo, from eo (295).

 Sometimes in the endings rimus and ritis of the Fut. Perf. and Perf. Subj.: ămāvērimus, ămūvēritis.

644. ${f U}$ in the increments of conjugation is short: $v\ddot{o}l\ddot{u}$ -mus.

Exceptions.—U is long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: $\emph{t\"ol}\ \emph{utum},\ \emph{vol}\ \emph{ut\"urus},\ \emph{\'am\'at\'urus}.$

III. QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS.

645. Rule X.—The following derivative endings have the penult long:

I. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum: flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

II. ēdo, īdo, ūdo; āgo, īgo, ūgo:

dulcēdo, cupīdo, solitudo; vorago, origo, aerugo.

III. āis, ēis, ōis, ōtis, īne, ōne—in patronymies:
Ptŏlēmāis, Chryseis, Minōis, Icăriōtis, Nērīne, Acrisiōne.
Except Dānāis, Phōcāis, Thēbāis, Nērēis.

IV. ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis: quěrēla, ŏvīle; mortālis, fĭdēlis, cŭrūlis.

V. ãnus, ẽnus, õnus, ūnus; ãna, ẽna, õna, ūna:

urbānus, egenus, patronus, trībūnus; membrāna, hābēna, annona, lācūna.

Except galbanus.

VI. āris, ārus; ōrus, ōsus; āvus, īvus: sălūtāris, ăvārus; cănorus, ănimosus; octāvus, aestīvus. VII. ātus, ītus, ūtus; ātim, ītim, ūtim; ētum, ēta:

ālātus, turrītus, cornūtus; singŭlātim, vĭrītim, trībūtim; quercētum, mŏnēta.

Except (1) ănhēlītus, fortuītus, grātuītus, hālītus, hospītus, servītus, spīritus, (2) affātim, stātim, and adverbs in ītus, as dīvīnītus; and (3) participles provided for by 639.

VIII. ēni, īni, ōni,—in distributives: septēni, quīni, octōni.

646. Rule XI.—The following derivative endings have the penult short:

I. ădes, iădes, ides, -in patronymics:

Aenēădes, Lāërtiădes, Tantălides.

Except (1) those in ides from nouns in eus and es; as, Pèlides (Pelcus), Neoclides (Neocles), and (2) Amphiàràides, Amyelides, Eèlides, Coronides, Lycurgides.

II. iăcus, ĭcus, ĭdus:

Cŏrinthiăcus, mŏdĭcus, cŭpĭdus.

Except ămicus, anticus, apricus, mendicus, posticus, pudicus.

III. člus, čla, člum; ŭlus, ŭla, ŭlum; cŭlus, cŭla, cŭlum,—in diminutives:

fīli
ŏlus, fīliŏla, atriŏlum; hortŭlus, virgŭla, oppĭdŭlum; floscŭlus, part
ĭcŭla, mūnuscŭlum.

IV. ĕtas, ĭtas,—in nouns; ĭter, ĭtus,—in adverbs: piĕtas, vērītas; fortīter, dīvīnītus.

V. ātīlis, ĭlis, bĭlis,—in verbals; ĭnus,—in adjectives denoting material or time:

versātīlis, dŏcīlis, āmābīlis; ādāmantīnus, cedrīnus, crastīnus, diūtīnus.

Except $m\bar{a}t\bar{u}t\bar{\imath}nus, r\check{\epsilon}pent\bar{\imath}nus, vespert\bar{\imath}nus.$

- 1. His in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: civilis, hostilis, puèrilis, virilis.
- 2. Inus denoting characteristic (325) usually has the penult long: căninus, ĕquinus, mărinus.

647. Rule XII.—The following derivative endings have the antepenult long:

I. āceus, ūceus, āneus, ārius, ārium, ōrius: rŏsāccus, pannūceus, sŭbĭtāncus, cĭbārius, cŏlumbārium, censōrius.

II. ābīlis, ātīlis, ātīcus:

ămābilis, versātilis, ăquāticus.

III. **āginta, īginti, ēs**imus,—in numerals: nonāginta, vīginti, centēsimus.

648. Rule XIII.—The following derivative endings have the antepenult short:

I. ibilis, itūdo, člentus, ŭlentus.
 crēdibilis, solitūdo, vinòlentus, ŏpŭlentus.

II. ŭrio,—in desideratives: ēsŭrio, emptŭrio, partŭrio.

IV. QUANTITY OF STEM SYLLABLES.

I. In Primitives.

649. The quantity of stem-syllables in primitive words, when not determined by the General Rules (Sec. I.), is in most cases best referred to authority. Thus,

In māter, cēdo, scrībo, dūno, ūtor, the first syllable is long by authority, while in păter, těgo, mǐco, sŏno, ŭter, it is short by authority.

650. Rule XIV.—The quantity of stem-syllables remains unchanged in inflection:

In declension, - avis, avem; nubes, nubium.

In comparison,—levis, levior, levissimus.

In conjugation,—moneo, monēbam, monui.

 Position may however affect the quantity: ăger, ăgri (611, 612); possum, pŏtui; solvo, sŏlūtum; volvo, vŏlūtum.

Here \check{a} becomes $\check{\check{a}}$ before gr. The o in possum, solvo, and volvo, long only by position, becomes short before a single consonant.

- 2. Gigno gives gěnui, gěnitum, and pōno, pŏsui, pŏsitum.
- 3. See also 651, 652.
- 651. Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines have the first syllable long, unless short by position:

juvo, jūvi, jūtum; foveo, fovi, fotum.

- These Perfects and Supines, if formed from Presents with the first syllable short, are exceptions to 650.
 - 2. Seven Perfects have the first syllable short:

bībi, dědi, fīdi, scidi, stěti, stiti, tůli.

3. Ten Supines have the first syllable short:

citum, dătum, itum, litum, quitum, rătum, rătum, sătum, sătum, stătum.¹

652. In trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects the first two syllables are short:

cădo, cĕcĭdi; căno, cĕcĭni; disco, dĭdĭci.

- Caedo has cecīdi in distinction from cecīdi from cado.
- 2. The second syllable may be made long by position: cucurri, momordi.

II. In Derivatives.

653. Rule XV.—Derivatives retain the quantity of their primitives:

bonus, bonitas; timeo, timor; animus, animosus; cīvis, cīvicus; cūra, cūro.

- 1. Frequentatives in ito, have i short: clāmito. See 332. I.
- 2. In a few Derivatives the short vowel of the primitive is lengthened:

hŏmo,	hūmānus,	1	rĕgo,	rēx, rēgis, rēgŭla,
lăteo,	lāterna,		sĕeus,	sēcius,
lěgo,	lēx, lēgis,		sĕdeo,	sēdes, sēdŭlus,
măcer,	mācĕro,	!	sĕro,	sēmen,
mŏveo,	mōbĭlis,		suspicor,	suspīcio,
persŏno,	persona,	l	těgo,	tēgŭla.

3. In a few Derivatives the long vowel of the primitive is shortened:

ācer,	ăcerbus,	nōtum,	nŏta,
dīco,	dĭcax,	ōdi,	ŏdium,
dūco,	dux, dŭeis,	sopio,	sŏpor,
fīdo,	fides,	vādo,	vădum,
lūceo,	lŭcerna,	vox, vocis,	vŏco.
möles.	mŏlestus.	,	

This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction: morthilis, mobbilis, mobbilis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography: as the verbs légis, léges, régis, réges, sèdes, from the nouns légis, lèges, règis, règes, sèdes, or the verbs dûcis, dûces, fides, from the nouns dûcis, dûces, fides.

III. In Compounds.

654. Rule XVI.—Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements:

antě-fěro, de-fěro, de-dūco, in-acqualis, pro-dūco.

1. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity: dē-lǐgo (lčgo), oc-cīdo (cádo), oc-cīdo (caedo).

¹ Frem sisto, but statum from sto.

2. INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS.—Dī, sē, and vē are long, rĕ short: ne sometimes long and sometimes short:

diduco, seduco, vecors, reduco, nedum, nefas:

1) Di is short in dirimo, disertus.

 Ne is long in nêdum, nêmo, nêquam, nêquaquam, nêquidquam, nêquitia, and nêre. In other words it is short.

 Re is sometimes lengthened in a few words: rĕlīgio, rĕlīquiae, rĕpĕrit, rĕpŭlit, rĕtūlit, etc.

3. Change of Quantity.—In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus

 $D\bar{\imath}$ co gives - $d\bar{\imath}$ cus; $j\bar{u}$ ro, - $j\bar{\imath}$ ro; $n\bar{o}$ tus, - $n\bar{\imath}$ tus; $n\bar{u}$ bo, $n\bar{u}$ ba: mălé-dĭcus, de-jĕro, cog-nĭtus, pr $\bar{\upsilon}$ -nŭba.

4. Pro.—Pro is short in the following words:

Procella, procul, profanus, profari, profecto, profestus, proficiscor, profiteor, profugio, profugus, profundus, pronepos, proneptis, protercus, and most Greek words, as prophèta, generally in profundo, propago, propino, rarely in procuro, propello.

5. Stem.—When the first element is the stem of a word (338. III.), it is often followed by a short connecting vowel:

căl-ĕ-făcio, lăb-ĕ-făcio, bell-ĭ-gĕro, aed-ĭ-fĭco, art-ĭ-fex, ampl-ĭ-fĭco, lŏc-ŭ-ples.

Before fácio in a few compounds e is sometimes lengthened: l'quefácio, pátěfácio, putréfácio, tépřfacio. The first e in ridélicet is long.

6. I LONG.—I is long,—(1) in the first part of compounds of dies: meridies, pridie, postridie, quotidie, triduum, and (2) in the contracted forms, bigae, trigae, quadrigae, ilicet, scilicet, tibicen for tibiicen.

But i is short in biduum and quatriduum.

O LONG.—O is long in contrō·, intrō-, retrō-, and quandō- in composition; as: contrōversia, intrōdūco, retrōverto, quandōque, but quandōquidem.

8. Special Words.—Hödie, quăsi, and siquidem have the first syllable short.

CHAPTER II.

VERSIFICATION.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT

655. Latin Versification is based upon Quantity and Accent. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.

I. METRICAL FEET.

656. Feet are either simple or compound. For convenience of reference we add the following list:

I. Simple Feet.

DISSYLLABIC FEET.

Spondee,	two long syllables,		Lēgēs.
Trochee,1	a long and a short,		Lēgĭs.
Iambus,	a short and a long,	-	Părēns.
Pyrrhic,	two short,	. .	Pătěr.
	Trisyllabi	с Геет.	

Dactyi,	a long and two short,	_ 0 0	cārmĭnă.
Anapaest,	two short and a long,	<u> </u>	bŏnĭtās.
Tribrach,	three short,	000	dŏmĭnŭs.
Molossus,	three long,		lībērtās.
Amphibrach,	a short, a long, and a short,	U — U	ămīcŭs.
Amphimacer,2	a long, a short, and a long,		mīlĭtēs.
Bacchius,	a short and two long,	- -	dŏlōrēs.
Antibacchius,	two long and a short,		pāstōrĭs.

II. Compound Feet.

These are only compounds of the dissyllabic feet, and all have four syllables.

¹ Sometimes called Choree.

Dispondee,	double spondee,		praēcēptērēs.
Ditrochee,	double trochee,		cīvitātis.
Diiambus,	double iambus,	· - · -	ămoenitās.
Proceleusmatic,	double pyrrhic,	0000	měmörĭä.
Greater Ionic,	spondee and pyrrhic,		sēntēnt ĭă.
Lesser Ionic,	pyrrhic and spondee,	· ·	ădŏlēscēns.
Choriambus,	trochee (choree), and iambus,	,	īmpātiēns.
Antispast,	iambus and trochee,	J — — J	vērēcūndús.
First Epitrite,	iambus and spondee,	·	ămāvērūnt.
Second Epitrite,	trochee and spondee,		conditores.
Third Epitrite,	spondee and iambus,		aŭctörĭtās.
Fourth Epitrite,	spondee and trochee,		örnämentä.
First Paeon,	trochee and pyrrhic,	_ 0 0 0	hīstörĭā.
Second Paeon,	iambus and pyrrhic,	J _ J J	ă mābĭlĭs.
Third Paeon,	pyrrhic and trochee,	J J _ J	pŭĕrīlĭs.
Fourth Paeon,	pyrrhic and iambus,	<u> </u>	cĕlĕrĭtās.
•	• •		_

- 1. COMMON FEET.—The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are,
 - 1) The Dactyl and Spondee, used in the Heroic Hexameter.
- 2) Less frequent the Iambus, Trochee, Tribruch, Anapaest, and Choriambus.
- 2. GROUPS.—A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four, etc. A Triemiměris is a group of three half feet, i. e., a foot and a half; Penthemiměris, of two and a half; Hephthemiměris, of three and a half, etc.
- 657. Metrical Equivalents.—A long syllable may often be resolved into two short ones, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short ones may be contracted into a long one. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original forms. Thus,

The Dactyl becomes a Spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the Spondee becomes a Dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly the Dactyl, the Spondee, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the Iambus, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.

658. METRICAL SUBSTITUTES.—In certain kinds of verse, feet are sometimes substituted for those which are not their metrical equivalents. Thus,

The Spondee is often substituted for the Iambus or the Trochec, though not equivalent to either. See 679, 682.

659. Ictus or Rhythmic Accent.—As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.

 SIMPLE FEET.—Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used for other feet. Thus,

The Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable; the Δ napaest and the Iambus on the last.

2. Equivalents and Substitutes.—These take the ictus of the feet for which they are used. Thus,

The Spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the ictus of the Dactyl, i. e., on the first syllable; but when used for the Anapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anapaest, i. e., on the last syllable.

- Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally
 canivalents or substitutes, and are accented accordingly.
- 2) When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented long syllable of the original foot, the ictus rests chiefly on the first of these two. Thus the Dactyl used for the Anapaest takes the ictus on the first short syllable.
- 3. Compound Feet.—These take the ictus of the feet of which they are composed. Thus,

The Choriumbus (trochee and iambus) takes the ictus of the trochee on the first syllable and that of the iambus on the last.

But Ionic feet are generally read with the ictus on the first long syllable.

660. Arsis and Thesis.—The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising); and the unaccented part, Thesis (lowering).

II. Verses.

- 661. A verse is a line of poetry, and is either simple or compound.
- I. A Simple verse has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse. Thus,

Every Dactylic Verse has the ictus on the first syllable, because the Dactyl, its characteristic foot, has it on that syllable.

- II. A Compound verse has a characteristic foot for each member. See 692.
- 662. CAESURAL PAUSE.—Most verses are divided into two nearly equal parts by a pause or rest called the caesura or caesural pause. See 673, 674.
- 663. Metrical Names of Verses.—The metrical name of a verse designates,
 - I. The Characteristic foot. Thus,

¹ Caesura (from eaedo, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the verse into parts.

Dactylic, Trochaic, and Iambic verses have respectively the Dactyl, the Trochee, and the Iambus as the characteristic foot.

II. The Number of Feet or Measures. Thus,

- 1. Dactylic Hexameter is Dactylic verse of six measures.
- 2. A verse consisting of one measure is Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Tentameter; of six, Hexameter.
- III. The Completeness or Incompleteness of the measures. Thus,
- 1. A verse is termed Acatalectic, when its last measure is complete; Catalectic, when it is incomplete.
- 1) A Catalectic verse is said to be catalectic in syllåbam, in disyllåbum, or in trisyllåbum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.
 - 2) A Brachycatalectic verse wants the closing foot of the last Dipody.
 - 3) An Acephalous verse wants the first syllable of the first foot.
 - 4) A Hypercatalectic verse, also called Hypermeter, has an excess of syllables.
- 2. The full metrical name combines the three particulars enumerated under I. II. and III., as Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic, etc.
- 1) But for the sake of brevity the term Acatalectic is often omitted when it can be done without ambiguity.
- 2) Verses are sometimes known by names which merely designate the number of feet or measures. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.
- 664. Special Names of Verses.—Many verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets. Thus,

Alcaic from Alcaeus, Archilochian from Archilochus, Sapphie from Sappho, Glyconic, from Glycon, etc.

Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they were applied: as *Heroic*, applied to heroic subjects; *Paroemiae*, to proverbs, etc.

- 665. Final Syllable.—The final syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short.
- 666. STANZA.—A stanza is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole. See 699, 700.

A stanza of two lines is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Istrastich.

¹ A measure is a single foot, except in Anapaestic, Trochaic, and Iambic verses, where it is a Dipody or Pair of feet.

- 667. Metre.—Metre signifies measure, and is used to designate,
- 1. A Foot or Dipody, as the measure, or metrical element of a verse.
 - 2. A Verse or Stanza, as the measure of a poem.
- 668. SCANNING.—Scanning consists in separating a poem, or verse, into the feet of which it is composed.

III. FIGURES OF PROSODY.

- 669. The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody. These are,
- I. SYNALOEPHA.—This is the clision of a final vowel or diphthong, or of a final m with the preceding vowel, before a word beginning with a vowel:

Monstr' horrend' inform' ingens, for Monstrum horrendum informe ingens. Virg.

- 1. No account is taken of h, as it is only a breathing (2. 2). Hence horrendum is treated as a word beginning with a vowel.
- 2. Interjections, o, heu, ah, proh, etc., are not clided, but in other words the clision generally takes place in the best poets.
 - 3. Final e in the interrogative ne is sometimes elided before a consonant:

Pyrrhīn' connūbia servas? for Pyrrhīne connūbia servas? Virg.

4. The elision of s occurs in the early poets:

Ex omnibu' rēbus, for Ex omnibus rēbus. Lucr.

- 5. Synalocpha may occur at the end of a line when the next line begins with a vowel. It is then called Synapheia.
- II. SYNAERESIS.—This is the contraction of two syllables into one:

aurea, deinde, deinceps, iidem, iisdem.

- 1. Synaeresis is of frequent application. It may unite
- 1) Two successive vowels, as in the examples above.

2) A vowel and a diphthong: eaedem.

- Two vowels separated by h, as only a breathing: prohibeat, pronounced proibeat.
- 2. In the different parts of desum, ee is generally pronounced as one syllable: deesse, deest, deerat, deerit, etc.: so ei in the verb anteeo: anteire, anteirem, anteis, anteit.
- 3. I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of y and w: Thus, ubiete and ariete, become abyete and aryete; genua and tenues become genua and tenues.

III. Diaeresis.—This is the resolution of one syllable into two:

aurā
īforaurae, Orphěŭs for Orphēūs, solu
endus, for solvendus, siluaforsilva.

As a matter of fact the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually divide any syllable into two, and the examples generally explained by diagresis are only ancient forms, occasionally used by them for effect or convenience.

IV. Systole.—This is the shortening of a long syllable: tülerunt for tülerunt, stětěrunt for stětěrunt (235), vídě'n for vídesne.

This is a rare poetical license, occurring most frequently in the final vowels and diphthongs, which would otherwise be elided. See 669. I. 2.

V. Diastole.—This is the lengthening of a short syllable:

Prīamides for Priamides.

1. This is a poetical license, used chiefly in proper names and in final syllables in the arsis of the foot (669). In the latter case the syllable is said to be lengthened by the *ictus*.

SECTION II.

VARIETIES OF VERSE.

I. DACTYLIC VERSE.

670. All Dactylic Verses are measured by single feet (663. II.), and consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

I. Dactylic Hexameter.

671. The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (665).

The scale is,1

Quādrupē- | dāntē pu- | trem sonī- | tu quatīt | ungula | campum. Virg. Armā vī- | rumquē cā- | no Tro- | jāe quī | prīmus ab | oris. Virg. Infan- | dum ro- | gīnā jū- | bēs rēnŏ- | vārē dō- | lorem. Virg.

Illi 2 în- | ter se- | se mag- | na vi | brachiă | töllunt. Virg.

¹ In this scale the sign ' marks the ictus (659).

² The final i of illi is elided by Synaloepha (669).

- 672. Varieties.—The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of dactyls and spondees.
 - 1. ILLUSTRATION .- Thus a verse may contain,

1) Five dactyls and one spondee, as in the first example above.

- $2) \ \ \mbox{Four datyls}$ and two spondees. These again admit four different arrangements.
- 3) Three dactyls and three spondees, as in the second and third examples above. But these again admit six different arrangements.
- 4) Two dactyls and four spondees. These admit four different arrangements.

5) One dactyl and five spondees, as in the fourth example.

- 2. Effect of Dactyls.—Dactyls produce a rapid movement and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of dactyls and spondees.
- 3. Spondaic Line.—The Hexameter sometimes takes a spondee in the fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a ductyl as its fourth foot:

Cāră dě- | ūm sŏbŏ- | lēs māg- | num Jŏvĭs | īncrē- | mēntum. Virg.

673. Caesural Pause.—The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the arsis, or in the thesis, of the third foot:

Armā- | tī tēn- | dūnt; || īt | clāmŏr čt | āgmĭnč | fāctō. Virg. Infān- | dūm, rē- | gīnā, || jū- | bēs rĕnŏ- | vātč dŏ- | lōrem. Virg.

In the first line the caesural pause, marked $\|\cdot\|$, is after tendunt, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after regina, in the thesis $(n\tilde{a}\ j\tilde{a})$ of the third foot

1. RARE CAESTRAL PAUSE.—The caesural pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second foot. Sometimes indeed this last becomes the principal pause:

Crēdide- | rīm; | vēr | īllud e- | rāt, | vēr | māgnus a- | gebat. Virg.

2. Butcolic Caesura.—A pause between the fourth and fifth feet is generally called the bucolic caesura, because often used in pastoral poetry:

Ingen- | tem coe- | lo soni- | tum dedit; | inde se- | cutus. Virg.

3. Faulty Caesura.—A caesural pause at the end of the third foot is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pūlvěru- | lēntus ĕ- | quīs furīt; | ēmnēs | ārmā rĕ- | quīrunt. Virg.

674. Caesura and Caesural Pause.—The ending of a word within a foot always produces a *caesura*. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these (sometimes two) is marked by the caesural pause:

Armă vi- | rumque că- | nō, || Trō- | jaē qui | prīmus ăb | ōris. Virg.

1. Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one

of these, that after cano, has the caesural pause.

2. In determining which caesura is to be marked by the pause the reader must be guided by the sense, introducing the pause where there is a pause

of sense, or where at least it will not interfere with the sense.

3. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Romae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armis. Enn.

- 675. Last Word of the Hexameter.—The last word of the Hexameter should be either a dissyllable or a trisyllable. See examples above.
- 1. Two monosyllables are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecĭpĭ- | tant cū- | rae, || tūr- | bātăquĕ | fūnĕrĕ | mēns est. Virg.

Est is indeed often used even when not preceded by another monosyllable.

2. A single monosyllable, except $\epsilon\epsilon t$, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor:

Pārturi- | unt mon- | tes, || nas- | cetur | ridicu- | lus mus. Hor.

II. Dactylic Pentameter.

676. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by the caesural pause. Each part consists of two Dactyls and the arsis of a third. The Spondee may take the piace of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

Admoni- | tū coe- | pī || fortior | ēsse tu- | o. Ovid.

- 1. Pentameter.—The name *Pentameter* is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being dactyls or spondees; the third, a spondee; the fourth and fifth, anapaests.
- 2. Elegiac Distich.—The Dactylic Pentameter is seldom, if ever, used, except in the Elegiac Distich, which consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmīsē- | pūltā vī- | rūm || cūr- | vīs fērī- | ūntǔr ā- | rātris Ossā, rŭ- | īnō- | sās || ōecúlǐt | hērbā dŏ- | mūs. Ov.

III. Other Dactylic Verses.

677. The other varieties of dactylic verse are less important, but the following deserve mention:

I. DACTYLIC TETRAMETER.—This consists of the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ibimus | O soci- | ī, comi- | tesque. Hor.

In compound verses, as the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in composition with other metres, has a dactyl in the fourth place. See 691. I.

II. DACTYLIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC.—This is the Lesser Archilochian, and is identical with the second half of the Dactylic Pentameter:

Arbori- | būsquě co- | mae. Hor.

III. DACTYLIC DIMETER.—This is the Adonic, and consists of a Dactyl and Spondee:

Montis i- | māgo. Hor.

II. Anapaestic Verse.

678. Anapaestic verses consist of Anapaestic dipodies.

An Anapaestic dipody consists of two Anapaests, but admits Spondees or Dactyls as equivalents.

I. Anapaestic Dimeter consists of two dipodies:

Věnient : annis || saeculă : seris.1 Sen.

This is sometimes catalectic (663. III. 1), and has only a long syllable in place of the last foot. It is then called *Paroemiac*.

II. Anapaestic Monometer consists of one dipody:

Dătă res : pătriae. Auson.

 In Anapaestic verse Dactyls are used sparingly, and are generally followed by Spondees. Each dipody generally ends with a word.

2. The last syllable is not common, as in most kinds of verse (665), but subject

to the ordinary rules of quantity.

3. Anapaestic verse does not occur in the best Latin Poets.

III. TROCHAIC VERSE.

679. Trochaic verses consist of Trochaic dipodies.

A Trochaic dipody consists of two Trochees, or of a Trochee and a Spondee; but it admits the Tribrach as the equivalent of the Trochee, and the Anapaest, of the Spondee. The first foot has a heavier ictus than the second:

¹ In verses measured by dipodies, a dotted line is placed between the feet, a single line between the dipodies, and a double line in the place of the caesural pause.

I. Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic.

680. This consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. The caesural pause is at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

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000	000	000		U U U	:
	:		~ -		:
	· · · -		· · · -	· · · -	:

Nullă ! vox hu- | mană ! constat || absque ! septem | litte- ! ris,

Rītě i vōcā- | lēs vŏ- i cāvīt || quās mă- i gīstră | Graēcǐ- i a. Ter. Mau.

- 1. In $Proper\ Names$, a dactyl may be introduced in any foot except the fourth and seventh.
 - 2. The Proceleusmatic for the Spondec sometimes occurs.
- 3. In Comedy the Spondee and its equivalents occur in the odd feet, as well as in the even, except in the last dipody.
- 4. The *Trochaic Tetrameter* also occurs in the earlier poets in its complete form, i. e., with eight full feet:

Ipsě : sūmmīs | sāxīs : fīxŭs || āspě- : rīs ē- | vīscě- : rātus. Enn.

II. Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic.

681. This consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents and has the following scale,

Aulă : dīvi- | tēm mă- : net. Hor.

- 1. This is sometimes called *Iambic Dimeter Acephalous*, i. e., an Iambic Dimeter with the first syllable wanting.
- A Trochaic Tripody,—three Trochees—technically called a Trochaic Dimeter Brachycatalectic, or an Ithyphalicus, occurs in the Greater Archilochian. See 691. I.
 - For Sapphic Verse, see 691. IV.
 - 4. For Phalaecian, see 691. V.

IV. IAMBIC VERSE.

682. Iambic verses consist of Iambic dipodies.

An Iambic dipody consists of two Iambi, or of a Spondee and an Iambus; but it admits the Tribrach as the equivalent of the Iambus, and sometimes the Dactyl or the

Anapaest, of the Spondee. The first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

In its full form it has the following scale:

I. Iambic Trimeter.

- 683. This verse, also called *Senarius*, consists of three Iambic Dipodies.
 - I. The first dipody has the full form.

II. The second admits no Anapaest.

III. The third admits no Anapaest or Dactyl, and in its second foot, no equivalent whatever.

IV. The Caesural Pause is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth.

The scale is.

Quid ōb- ! sčrā- | tīs || au- ! rĭbūs | fūndīs ! prēces? Hor. Nēptū- ! nŭs āl- | tō || tūn- ! dǐt hī- | bērnūs ! sălo. Hor. Hās īn- ! tĕr ĕpŭ- | lās || ūt ! jŭvāt | pāstās ! ŏves. Hor.

 Proper Names.—In proper names an Anapacst is admissible in any foot, except the last, but must be in a single word.

2. Horace.—In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spondee; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl and Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapaest occurs only twice in all.

3. Comedy.—In Comedy great liberty is taken, and the Spondce and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

4. CHOLIAMBUS.—This is a variety of Iambic Trimeter with a Spondee in the sixth foot and an Iambus in the fifth:

Miser : Cătul- | le de- : sinās | inep- : tire. Catul.

Choliambus means lame or limping Iumbus, and is so called from its limping movement. It is sometimes called Scazon for the same reason, and sometimes Hipponactëan, from Hipponax, its reputed inventor.

684. IAMBIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC.—This is the Iambic Trimeter with the last foot incomplete. But in Horace the only feet admissible besides the Iambus are the Tri-

brach in the second foot and the Spondee in the first and third:

Voca. į tus at- | que non į voca- | tus au- į dit. Hor.

II. Iambie Dimeter.

685. This verse consists of two Iambic Dipodies with their usual equivalents. But in Horace the only feet admissible besides the Iambus are the Tribrach in the second place, the Spondee in the first and third, and the Dactyl in the first:

Quěrūn- ! tǔr în | sīlvīs ! ăves. Hor. Imbrēs ! nǐvēs- | quě cōm- ! părat. Hor. Ast ĕgŏ ! vĭcīs- | sīm rī- ! sĕro. Hor.

1. IAMBIC DIMETER HYPERMETER occurs in Horace with the following scale:

Puer | quis ex | aula | capil- | lis. Hor.

This is sometimes called the Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse and forms the third line in the Alcaic Stanza. See 700. I.

IAMBIC DIMETER CATALECTIC does not occur in the pure Latin poets. Its scale is,

Mănū ! puer | loqua- ! ci. Pet. Arb.

 Iambic Dimeter Acephalous.—This name is sometimes given to the Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (651), which is then treated as Iambic Dimeter without the first syllable. Thus

Au- | lă dī- | vǐtēm | mănet. Hor.

III. Iambic Tetrameter.

686. The Iambie Tetrameter is little used in Latin except in Comedy. It consists of four Iambie Dipodies with their usual equivalents. The caesural pause is usually after the fourth foot:

Quantum în- ; tëllëx- | î mŏdŏ ; sĕnīs || sēntēn- ; tĭām | dē nūp- ; tĭis. *Ter*.

The Iambie Tetrameter Catalectic belongs mostly to comedy, but occurs also in Catullus:

Quốt côm- : modas | res at- : tuli ? || quot au- : tem ade- | mi cu- : ras. Ter.

V. IONIC VERSE.

687. The Ionic a Minore consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Simul unctos | Tiberīnīs | humeros lā- | vit in undīs. Hor. Negue segnī | pēde vīctus. Hor.

1. Horace has this metre only in one short ode (III. 12). In some editions this ode consists entirely of Tetrameters; but in others it is arranged in stanzas of three lines; the first two, Tetrameters, and the third, a Dimeter.

2. In this verse the last syllable is not common, but subject to the ordi-

nary rules of quantity, as in the Anapaestic verse. See 678. 2.

3. The Ionic a Majore, Sotadean Verse, scarcely occurs in Latin, except in Comedy. In its pure state it consists of three Greater Ionic feet and a Spondee, but in Martial the third foot is a Ditrochee:

Hās cum gemi- | nā compede | dedicāt ca- | tenās. Mart.

VI. CHORIAMBIC VERSE.

688. Choriambic verses begin with a Spondee followed by one, two, or three Choriambi, and end with an Iambus.

In Horace the Cheriambic verse uniformly begins with the Spondee, but in some of the other poets the Trochee, the Anapaest, or the Iambus occasionally takes the place of the Spondee.

689. A Choriambic verse with one Choriambus is called the *Glyconic*; or, if catalectic, the *Pherecratēan*; with two, the *Asclepiadēan*; with three, the Greater *Asclepiadēan*.

I. The GLYCONIC has the following scale:

Donec | grātus erām | tibi. Hor.

II. The Pherecratean is catalectic, but otherwise identical with the Glyconic. Its scale is,

Vîx dū- | rārĕ cărī- | nae. Hor.

III. The ASCLEPIADEAN has the following scale:

Maecē- | nās ătāvīs || ēdītě rēg- | ĭbus. Hor.

IV. The Greater Asclepiadean has the following scale:

Seu plū- | rēs hiemēs, | seu tribuît | Jūpiter ūl- | timam. Hor.

This is sometimes called Choriambic Pentameter and sometimes Choriambic Tetrameter.

Epichoriambic Verse.

- 690. When a verse begins with a Second Epitrite followed by one or two Choriambi, and ends with a Bacchīus, it is called Epichoriambic. Of this there are two important varieties:
- I. THE SAPPHIC VERSE.—This consists of a Second Epitrite, a Choriambus and a Bacchius:

Nāmquě mē sīl- | vā || lupus īn | Săbīna. Hor.

- 1. But the Sapphic verse may also be measured as a Trochaic Dipody followed by an Aristophanic verse, i. e., as composed of a Trochee, a Spondee, a Dactyl, and two Trochees. See 691. IV.
- 2. The Caesural Pause usually occurs after the fifth syllable, as in the example, but sometimes after the sixth.
 - 3. Catullus admits two Trochees in place of the Epitrite.
- II. The Greater Sapphic Verse.—This differs from the Sapphic proper only in introducing a second Choriambus before the Bacchīus:

Inter aequa- | les equitat, || Gallica nec | lupatis. Hor.

This is sometimes improperly called Choriambic Tetrameter.

VII. LOGAOEDIC VERSE.

- 691. Logacedic verses consist of Dactyls, or their equivalents, followed by Trochees.
- I. GREATER ARCHILOCHIAN.—This consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (677. I.) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Dactyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Dactyl; and the last three, Trochees:

Vitaě | sůmmă brě- | vīs spěm | nōs větăt, || īnchō- ; ārě | lōngam. Hor. The caesural pause is between the two members.

II. ALCAIC VERSE.—This consists of two Dactyls followed by two Trochees:

Purpurë- | ō vări- | ūs cŏ- i lore. Hor.

III. Aristophanic Verse.—This consists of a Dactyl followed by two Trochees:

Cūr něquě | mīlǐ- i tāris. Hor.

This verse is variously named, Aristophanic, Choriambic Dimeter, and Choriambic Dimeter Catalectic.

IV. SAPPHIC VERSE.—This prefixes to the Aristophanic a Trochaic Dipody consisting of a Trochee and a Spondee (690. I.). The scale is,

Nāmquě i mē sīl- | vā lupus | în Să- i bīna. Hor.

Supphic verse may be classed at pleasure either with the Logacedic verses, as here, or with the Epichoriambic verses, as in article 690. I.

V. Phalaecian Verse.—This consists of a Spondee, a Dactyl, and three Trochees:

Non est | vīvere, i| sed vă- i lere | vita. Mart.

This verse is sometimes called, from the number of its syllables, *Hendecasyllabic*, of cleven syllables. It does not occur in Horace. In Catullus it sometimes has a Trochee, or an Iambus, in the first place.

VIII. MISCELLANEOUS VERSES.

692. Greater Alcaic Verse.—This consists of an *Iambic Penthemimeris* and a pure *Dactylic Dimeter*, i. e., an Iambic Dipody, a long syllable and two Dactyls:

Vidës : ŭt āl- | tā || stët nivë | cāndidum Sōrāc- : tě nēc | jām || sūstině- | ānt ŏnus. Hor.

- 1. The Caesural Pause is usually between the two members.
- 2. In Horace the first foot is generally a Spondee.
- 3. This verse forms the first and second lines of the Alcaic Stanza. See 700. I.

693. Dactylico-Iambic Verse.—This consists of a pure *Dactylic Penthemimeris* (656. 2) and an *Iambic Dimeter* (685):

Jussus ab- | īrē do- | mum, || fere- ! bar în- | certo ! pede. Hor.

- This verse is sometimes called Elegiambus.
- This verse and the following compounds—the Iambico-Dactylic and the Priapeian—have the peculiarity that the two members of each may be treated as separate lines, as the last syllable of the first member is common, as at the end of a line.
- 694. IAMBICO-DACTYLIC VERSE.—This consists of an *Iambic Dimeter* and a *Dactylic Penthemimeris*, i. e., of the same parts as the preceding, but in an inverted order:

Nivēs- | que de- | ducunt | Jovem : | nunc mare, | nunc silu- | ae. Hor.

- 1. This verse is sometimes called Iambelegus.
- 2. For the final syllable of the first member, see 693. 2.
- 695. PRIAPEIAN VERSE.—This consists of a Glyconic and a Pherecratēan (689. I. II.):

Quērcus | arida rus- | tica || confor- | mata secu- | ri. Catul.

- 1. In this verse, as it appears in Catullus, the Glyconic and the Pherceratean appear with such variations as are allowed in that poet (658). Hence the Trochee quercus for the Spondee, in the example.
 - 2. For the final syllable of the first member, see 693. 2.

SECTION III.

THE VERSIFICATION OF VIRGIL, HORACE, OVID, AND JUVENAL.

- 696. VIRGIL AND JUVENAL.—Virgil in his Eclogues, Georgies, and Aeneid, and Juvenal in his Satires use only the Dactylic Hexameter. See 671.
- 697. Ovid.—Ovid uses the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses, but the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works. See 676. 2.
- 698. Horace.—Horace uses the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, but in his Lyrics, i. e., in his Odes and Epodes, he uses a great variety of Metre.

699. Lyrics of Horace.—Most of the Odes and Epodes consist of Stanzas of two, three, or four verses; but a few of them consist entirely of a single kind of verse.

Lyric Metres of Horace.

700. For convenience of reference the following outline of the Lyric metres of Horace is here inserted.

A. Stanzas of Four Verses. ..

I. Alcaic Stanza.—First and second verses, Greater Alcaics (692); third, Iambic Dimeter Hypermeter (685. I.); fourth, Alcaic (691. II.).

In thirty-seven Odes: I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV. 4, 9, 14, 15.

II. SAPPHIC AND ADONIC.—The first three verses, Sapphies (691. IV.); the fourth, Adonic (677. III.).

In Twenty-six Odes: I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV. 2, 6, 11, and Sec. Hymn.

III. ASCLEPIADEAN AND GLYCONIC.—The first three verses, Asclepiadeans (689. III.); the fourth, Glyconic (689. II.).

In nine Odes: I. 6, 15, 24, 33; II. 12; III. 10, 16; IV. 5, 12.

IV. ASCLEPIADEAN, PHERECRATEAN, AND GLYCONIO.—The first two verses, Asclepiadeans (689. III.); the third, Pherecratean (689. II.); the fourth, Glyconic (689. I.).

In seven Odes: I. 5, 14, 21, 23; III. 7, 13; IV. 13.

B. Stanzas of Three Verses.

V. Ionic a Minore (687).—The first two verses, Tetrameters: the third, Dimeter.

In Ode III. 12.

C. Stanzas of Two Verses.

VI. IAMBIC TRIMETER AND IAMBIC DIMETER (683, 685).

In the first ten Epodes.

VII. GLYCONIC AND ASCLEPIADEAN (689. I., III.).

2. See IV. 1.

In twelve Odes: I. 3, 13, 19, 36; III. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV. 1, 3.

VIII. HEXAMETER AND DACTYLIC TETRAMETER (671; 677. I.).

In two Odes: I. 7, 28, and Epode 12.

IX. Hexameter and Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic (671; 677, II.).

In Ode IV. 7.

X. Hexameter and Iambic Trimeter (671, 683).

See VIII. 1 and VI. 1.

In Epode 16.

XI. HEXAMETER AND IAMBIC DIMETER (671, 685).

See VIII. 1 and VI. 2.

In Epodes 14 and 15.

XII. HEXAMETER AND IAMBICO-DACTYLIO (671, 694).

1. See VIII. 1.

In Epode 13.

XIII. IAMBIC TRIMETER AND DACTYLICO-IAMBIC (683, 693).

1. See VI. 1.

In Epode 11.

XIV. TROCHAIC DIMETER CATALECTIC AND IAMBIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC (681, 684).

In Ode II. 18.

XV. Greater Archilochian and Iambio Trimeter Catalectic (691, I.; 684).

In Ode I. 4.

XVI. Aristophanic and Greater Sapphic (691, III.; 690, II).

In Ode I. 8.

D. Verses used Singly.

XVII. ASCLEPIADĒAN (689. III.).

In three Odes: I. 1; III. 80; IV. 8.

XVIII. GREATER ASCLEPIADĒAN (689. IV.).

In three Odes: I. 11, 18; IV. 10.

XIX. IAMBIO TRIMETER (683). See VI. 1. In Epode 17.

701. INDEX TO THE LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

The Roman numerals refer to articles in the preceding outline, 700.

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Odes.	BOOK 1.	Metres.	4,		II.	26,		I.
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15,		III.	19,		I.	9,		I.
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19,	••••••	VII.	1,		I.	13,		IV.
20,	•••••	II.	2,		I.	14,		I.
21,	•••••	IV.	3,		I.	15,		I.
22,	•••••	II.	4,		I.	1		
23,	•••••	IV.	5,		Ī.		EPODES.	
24,	•••••	III.	6,		Ī.			
25,	•••••	II.	7,		IV.	Epo	ies.	Metres.
26,		Į.	8,		II.	1,	•••••	VI.
27,	•••••	I.	9,		VII.	2,	•••••	VI.
28,		VIII.	10,		III.	3,		VI.
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34,		I.	16,		Ш.	9,		VI.
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APPENDIX.

I. Figures of Speech.

702. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, or signification of words.

Deviations from the ordinary forms are called Figures of Etymology; from the ordinary constructions, Figures of Syntax, and from the ordinary significations, Figures of Rhetoric.

703. The Figures of Etymology are the following:

- 1. APHAERESIS takes a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word: 'st for est.
- 2. Syncope takes a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; virum for virorum, dixe for dixisse.
 - 3. Apocope takes a letter or syllable from the end of a word: tūn' for tūne.
 - 4. Prosthesis prefixes a letter or syllable to a word: tetuli for tuli.
- 5. Epenthesis inserts a letter or syllable in a word: Alcümēna for Alcmēna, ülituum for ülitum.
 - 6. Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to a word: dicier for dici.
 - 7. METATHESIS transposes letters or syllables: pistris for pristis.
- 8. Antithesis substitutes one letter for another: volume for vulnus, olli for illi-See also Figures of Prosody, 669.

704. The Figures of Syntax are the following:

I. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words of a sentence:

Hăbîtābat ad Jövis (sc. templum), He dwelt near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Abiit, evāsit (et), He has gone, has escaped. Cic.

- 1. ASYNDETON is an ellipsis of a conjunction. See 587. I. 6; 587. III. 4.
- 2. Zeugma is an ellipsis which employs a single verb with two subjects or objects, though strictly applicable to only one:

Pācem an bellum gerens, whether at peace (agens) or waging war. Sall.

3. Aposiopesis, also called *Reticentia*, used for rhetorical effect, is an ellipsis which leaves the sentence unfinished:

Quos ego — sed mötos praestat componere fluctus. Whom I — but it is better to calm the troubled waves. Virg.

- 4. PROVERBS are often elliptical.
- 5. ELLIPSIS OF FACIO, DICO, OEO. See 460. 3; 602, II. 3.

II. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words:

Erant ĭtĭnĕra duo, quĭbus itĭnerībus exire possent, There were two ways by which ways they might depart. Caes. Eurusque Nŏtusque ruunt, Both Eurus and Notus rush forth. Virg.

- 1. POLYSYNDETON is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example.
- 2. Hendladys is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective or genitive:

Armis virisque, for viris armātis, with armed men. Tac.

3. Anaphora is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses: Me cuncta Itălia, me universa civitas consulem declaravit, Me all Italy, me the whole state declared consul. Cic.

4. EPIPHORA is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses:

Laelius nāvus ĕrat, doctus ĕrat, Laelius was diligent, was learned. Cic.

5. Monosyllabic prepositions are often repeated before successive nouns, regularly so with et-et:

Et in bellicis et in civilibus officiis, both in military and in civil offices. Cic.

Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

6. A demonstrative, pronoun or adverb, id, hoc, illud, sic, ita, is often used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent clause. So also quid, in quid censes with a clause:

Illud te oro ut diligens sis, I ask you (that thing) to be (that you be) diltgent. Cic.

Pronouns redundant with quidem. See 446. 1.

8. Pleonasm often occurs with licet:

Ut liceat permittitur = licet, It is lawful (is permitted that it is, &c.). Cic.

9. A word is often repeated for emphasis.

Circumlocutions with res, genus, modus, and ratio are common.

III. ENALLAGE is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another:

Populus late rex (for regnans), a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Virg. Sērus (sēro) in coelum rědeas, May you return late to heaven. Hor. Vīna cădis (vīnis cădos) ŏněrāre, to fill the flasks with wine. Virg.

1. Antimeria is the use of one part of speech for another, as in the first two examples.

2. Hypallage is the use of one case for another, as in the last example.

3. Synesis is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical forms. See 438. 6 and 461.

4. Anacoluthon is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence:

Si, ut dicunt, omnes Graios esse (Graii sunt), if, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.

IV. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Praeter arma nihil ĕrat super (supererat), Nothing remained, except their arms. Nep. Vălet atque vīvit (vīvit atque vălet), He is alive and well. Ter.

1. Anastrophe is the transposition of words only, as in the first example.

2. Hysteron Proteron is a transposition of clauses, as in the second example.

3. Thesis is the separation of a compound word. See 523. 2. 2).

705. Figures of Rhetoric, also called Tropes, comprise several varieties. The following are the most important.

I. Metaphor.—This is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet or action of another:

Rei publicae vulnus (for damnum), the wound of the republic. Cic. Naufrägium fortunae, the wreck of fortune. Cic.

II. METONYMY is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:

Aequo Marte (for proelio) pugnātum est, They fought in an equal contest. Liv. Fürit Vulcānus (ignis), The fire rages. Virg.

By this figure the cause is often put for the effect and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signified, etc.: Mars for bellum, Vulcānus for ignis, Bacchus for vinum, nobilitas for nobiles, Graecia for Graeci, laurea for victoria, etc.

III. Synecdoche is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

In vestra tecta (restras domos) discedite, Depart to your homes. Cic. Statio male fida cărinis (nāvibus), a station unsafe for ships. Virg.

IV. Irony is the use of a word for its opposite:

Legatos bonus (for malus) imperator vester non admisit, Your good commander did not admit the ambassadors. Liv.

1. Enim, éténim, scilicet, vidélicet, nimirum, crédo, and the like, are often ironical. See 503. 3.

V. Hyperbole is an exaggeration:

Ventis et fulmı̆nis \bar{o} cior \bar{a} lis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning. Virg.

VI. LITOTES denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non opus est = perniciosum est, It is not necessary. Cic.

II. LATIN AUTHORS.

- 703. The history of Roman literature embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B. C. to 550 A. D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods:
- I. The Ante-Classical Period.—From 250 to 81 B. C. The principal authors of this period are:

Ennius, Plautus, Terence, -Lucretius.

II. The CLASSICAL PERIOD.—This embraces the Golden and the Silver age:

1. The Golden Age.—From 81 B. C. to 14 A. D. The principal authors are:

Cicero, Acpos, Horace, Tibullus,
Caesar, Livy, Ovid, Propertius.

-Sallust, Virgil, Catullus,

2. The Silver Age.—From 14 to 180 A.D. The principal authors are:

Quintilian, - Persius, Phaedrus. The Plinies, Velleius. Tacitus, Suctonius, Lucan, The Senccas, Curtius, Juvenal, Martial.

III. The Post-Classical Period.—This embraces the Brazen and the Iron Age:

1. The Brazen Age.—From 180 to 476 A.D. The principal

authors are:

Justin. Eutropius, Lactantius, Claudian, Victor, Macrobius, Ausonius, Terentian.

2. The Iron Age.—From 476 to 550 A.D. The principal authors are:

Boëthius, Cassiodorus. Justinian. Priscian.

III. THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

- 707. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.
- 708. Peculiarities.—The Roman calendar has the following peculiarities:
- I. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:

- The Calends, the first of each month;
 The Nones, the fifth,—but the seventh in March, May, July, and October:
- 3. The Ides, the thirteenth, -but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- II. From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but backward.

Hence after the Ides of each month, the days were numbered from the Calends of the following month.

- III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before each was denoted by pridie Calendas, Nonas, etc.; the second before each by die tertio (not secundo; third, not second) ante Călendas, etc., the third, by die quarto, etc., and so on through the month.
- 1. Numerals.-This peculiarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day before the Calends, etc., as the third, and the third as the jourth, etc., arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted as the first. Thus pridie ante Calendas becomes the second before the Calends, die tertio ante Călendas, the third, etc.
- 2. Name of Month.-In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Calendas, Nonas, etc., as, die quarto ante Nonas Januārias, often shortened to, quarto ante Nonas Jan. or IV. ante Nonas Jan. or withont ante, as, IV. Nonas Jan., the second of January.

3. Ante diem.-Instead of die-ante, ante diem is common, as, ante diem guartum Nonas Jan. for die quarto ante Nonas Jan.

4. As Indeclinable Nouns.—The expressions ante diem—Cal., etc., pridie Cal., etc., are often used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition, as, ew ante diem V. Idus Oct., from the 11th of Oct. Liv. Ad pridie Nonas Maias, till the 6th of May, Cic.

709. CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR.

Days of	March, May, July,	Jan. Aug.	April, June,	February.
the Month.	Oct.	December.	Sept. Nov.	
1 2 8 4 5 6 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 12 13 14 15 16 6 17 18 12 22 23 22 25 26 27 28 20 30 31	CALENDIS. VI. Nonas. VI. " IV. " IVI. " IVI. " Pridie Nonas. Nonis. VIII. Idus. VII. " VI. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IV. " Pridie Idus. Ininys. XVII. Calend. XVII. " XVI. " XIV. " XIV. " XIV. " XIV. " XIV. " XIV. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIII. " X	CALENDIS. IV. Nonos. III. Nonos. Pridie Nonas. Nonis. VIII. Idus. VIII. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IVI. " Pridie Idus. IDIBUS. XIXI. Calend. XVIII. " XVII. " XVII. " XVII. " XIII. "	CALENDIS. IV. Nonas. III. Pridie Nonas. NONIS. VIII. Idus. VIII. " VI. " IV. " IV. " III. " Pridie Idus. IDIBETS. XVIII. Calend. XVII. " XVI. " XVI. " XVI. " XVI. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIII.	CALENDIS. IV. Nonas. III. V. Nonas. III. W. Nonas. VIII. Idus. VIII. Idus. VIII. W.

710. English and Latin Dates.—The table (709) will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but in translating Latin, it may be convenient also to have the following rule:

I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtract the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall:

¹ To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nonas, Idus, etc., ante is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (708. III. 2).

² The Calends of the following month are of course meant, as the 16th of March for instance is, XVII. Calendas Apriles.

³ The enclosed forms apply to leap-year.

VIII. ante Idus Jan. = 13 - (8 - 1) = 13 - 7 = 6th of January.

II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:

XVIII. ante Cal. Feb. = 31 - (18 - 2) = 31 - 16 = 15th of January.

In Leap-year the 24th and 25th February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Cal. Mart. The days before the 24th are numbered precisely as if the month contained as usual only 25 days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: V., IV., III. Cal. Mart., and pridie Cal. Mart.

- 711. Divisions of DAY AND NIGHT.—The Roman day, from sun-rise to sun-set, and the night from sun-set to sun-rise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.
- 1. Night Watches.—The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.
- Length of Roman Hour.—The hour, being uniformly \(\frac{1}{12}\) of the day or of the night, of course varied in length, with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

IV. ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

712. Coins.—The principal Roman coins were the as, of copper, the sestertius, quinārius, dēnārius, of silver, and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period was as follows:

As,								1 to	2 cents.
Sestertius,								4	6.6
Quīnārius,								8	6.6
Dēnārius,								16	4.6
Aureus =	25	dēn	ārii,					\$4.00.	

 As—THE UNIT OF MONEY.—The As was originally the unit of the Roman currency, and contained a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time in weight and value till at last it contained only 1/24 of a pound.

But whatever its weight, $\frac{1}{12}$ of the as is always called an uncia, $\frac{2}{12}$ a sextans, $\frac{3}{12}$ a quadrans, $\frac{4}{12}$ a triens, $\frac{5}{12}$ a quincunx, $\frac{6}{12}$ a semis, $\frac{7}{12}$ a septunx, $\frac{3}{12}$ a bes, $\frac{9}{12}$ a dodarans, $\frac{1}{12}$ a dextans, $\frac{1}{12}$ a deunx.

- 2. Sestertius, Quinarius, and Denarius.—The sestertius contained originally 2½ asses, the quinārius 5, and the dēnārius 10; but as the as depreciated in value, the number of asses in these coins was increased.
- 3. As—the General Unit of Computation.—The as is also used as the unit in other things as well as in money. Thus
 - 1) In Weight.-The as is then a pound, and the uncia an ounce.
- In Measure.—the as is then a foot or a jugerum (718), and the uncia is 1/2 of a foot or of a jugerum.

3) In Interest.—The as is then the unit of interest, which was one per cent. a month, i. e., twelve per year, the uncia is $\frac{1}{12}$ per month, i. e., 1 per year, and the sēmis is $\frac{6}{12}$ per month, i. e., 6 per year, etc.

4) In Inheritance.—The as is then the whole estate, and the uncia 12 of it:

hēres ex asse, heir of the whole estate; hēres ex dodrante, heir of 12.

- 713. Computation of Money.—In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the *sestertius*, also called *nummus*; but four special points deserve notice:
- I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sestertii with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sestertii, 5 sesterces, viginti sestertii, 20 sesterces, ducenti sestertii, 200 sesterces.

- II. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sestertii, or mille sestertium.
- III. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by millia scstertiám (gen. plur.), or (2) by sestertia:

Duo millia sestertium, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque millia sestertium, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sesterces

With sestertia the distributives were generally used, as, bing sestertia, for duo sestertia.

IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sestertium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, dĕcies, vīcies, etc. Thus

Děcies sestertium, 1,000,000 (10 \times 100,000) sesterces; Vicies sestertium, 2,000,000 (20 \times 100,000) sesterces.

1. Sestertium.—In the examples under IV., sestertium is treated and declined as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genitive plur. of sestertius, and the full expression for 1,000,000 sesterces was Décies centéna millia sestertium. Centéna millia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sestertium lost its force as a genitive plural, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension

2. Sestertium Omitted.—Sometimes sestertium is omitted, leaving only the numeral adverb: as, décies, 1,000,000 sesterces.

3. Sign IIS.—The sign IIS, is often used for sestertii, and sometimes for sester-tia, or sestertium:

Decem HS = 10 sesterces (HS = sestertii). Dona HS = 10,000 sesterces (HS = sestertia). Decies HS = 1,000,000 sesterces (HS = sestertium).

- 714. Weight.—The basis of Roman weights is the $L\bar{\imath}bra$, also called As or Pondo, equal probably to about $11\frac{1}{2}$ ounces avoirdupois.
- 1. Ounces.—The Libra, like the as in money, is divided into 12 parts called by the names given under 712. 1.
- 2. Fractions of Ounces.—Parts of ounces also have special names: $\frac{1}{3} = 8$ miuncia, $\frac{1}{3} = \text{duella}$, $\frac{1}{4} = 8$ rellicus, $\frac{1}{6} = 8$ extůla, $\frac{1}{8} = d$ rachma, $\frac{1}{44} = 8$ rellicus, $\frac{1}{48} = 0$ blus.

- 715. DRY MEASURE.—The Modius is the basis, equal to about a peck.
 - Sextarius.—This is 1/16 of a modius.
- 2. Parts of the Sextables.—These have special names: $\frac{1}{2}=$ hēmīna, $\frac{1}{6}=$ ácētābūlum, $\frac{1}{16}=$ cyāthus.
- 716. Liquid Measure.—The Amphora is the most convenient unit of the Roman liquid measure, and contained a Roman cubic foot, equivalent probably to about seven gallons, wine measure.
 - 1. Culeus.—Twenty amphorae make one Culeus.
- Parts of Amphora.—These have special names: ½ = urna, ½ = congius, ¼ = sextārius, ¼ = hēmīna, ¼ = quartārius, ¼ = aēētābūlum, ¼ ¼ = cyāthus.
- 717. Long Measure.—The basis of this measure is the Roman foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches.
- 1. Combinations of Feet.—Palmipes = $1\frac{1}{4}$ Roman feet; cubitus = $1\frac{1}{4}$; passus = 5; stădium = 625.
 - 2. Parts of Foot.—Palmus = $\frac{1}{4}$ foot; uncia = $\frac{1}{12}$; digitus = $\frac{1}{10}$.
- 718. Square Measure.—The basis of this measure is the Jūgĕrum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre.

The parts of the jugérum have the same name as those of the As: uncia $= \frac{1}{r_0}$, sextans $= \frac{2}{r_0}$, etc. Sec 712. 1.

V. Abbreviations.

719. Names.

A. = Aulus.

Ap. = Appius.
C. (G.) = Caius (Gaius).
Cn. (Gn.) = Cnaeus
(Gnaeus).
D. = Děcimus.

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{L.} = \textbf{L}\bar{\textbf{u}}\text{cius.} & \textbf{Q.} \ (\textbf{Qu.}) = \textbf{Quintus.} \\ \textbf{M.} = \textbf{Marcus.} & \textbf{S.} \ (\textbf{Sex.}) = \textbf{Sextus.} \\ \textbf{M'.} = \textbf{M}\bar{\textbf{a}}\text{nius.} & \textbf{Ser.} = \textbf{Servius.} \\ \textbf{Mam.} = \textbf{M}\bar{\textbf{a}}\text{mercus.} & \textbf{Sp.} = \textbf{Spŭrius.} \\ \textbf{N.} = \textbf{N}\bar{\textbf{u}}\text{m}\bar{\textbf{e}}\text{rius.} & \textbf{T.} = \textbf{Titus.} \\ \textbf{P.} = \textbf{Publius.} & \textbf{Ti.} \ (\textbf{Tib.}) = \textbf{Tib\bar{\textbf{e}}}\text{rius.} \end{array}$

720. Other Abbreviations.

A. D. = ante diem.
Aed. = aedīlis.
A. U. C. = anno urbis
conditae.
Cal. (Kal.) = Călendae.
Cos. = consul.
Coss. = consules.
D. = dīvus.
D. D. = dōno dĕdit.

Des. = dēsignātus.
D. M. = diis mānībus.
D. S. = de suo.

D. S. P. P. = de sua pēcūnia pŏsuit.
Eq. Rom. = Eques Rōmānus.

 $F_{\cdot} = f_{i}$ filius.

F. C. = făciendum cūrāvit.Id. = Idus.Imp. = impĕrātor.

Leg. = lēgātus. Non. = Nonae. O. M. = optimus max-

řmus.
P. C. = patres conscripti.

Pont. Max. = pontifex maximus. P. R. = populus Ro-

mānus.
Pr. = praetor.
Praef. = praefectus.

Proc. = prōconsul. Q. B. F. F. Q. S. =

quod bŏnum, fēlix, faustumque sit. Quir. = Quĭrītes.

Resp. = res publica. S. = sĕnātus.

S. C. = sěnātus consultum.S. D. P. = sălūtem di-

S. D. P. = sălūtem d cit plūrimam.

S. P. Q. R. = sĕnātus pŏpūlusque Rōmānus.

Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plēbis.

INDEX OF VERBS.

721. This Index contains an alphabetical list, not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities, but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention.

But in regard to compounds of prepositions, two important facts must be borne in mind:

- 1. That the elements,—preposition and verb—often appear in the compound in a changed form. See 338. 1 and 341. 3.
- That the stem-vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine.See 260.

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Note. - The numbers refer to articles, not to pages. Constr. = construction, w. = with, f. = and the following, compds. = compounds, gen. or genu. = genitive, gend. = gender, acc. or accus. = accusative, accs. = accusatives, adjs. = adjectives, preps. = prépositions, etc.

It has not been thought advisable to overload this index, with such separate words as may be readily referred to classes, or to general rules, or even with such exceptions as may be readily found under their respective heads. Accordingly the numerous exceptions in Dec. III. in the formation of the genitive and in gender, are not inserted, as they may be best found under the respective endings, 55-115.

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